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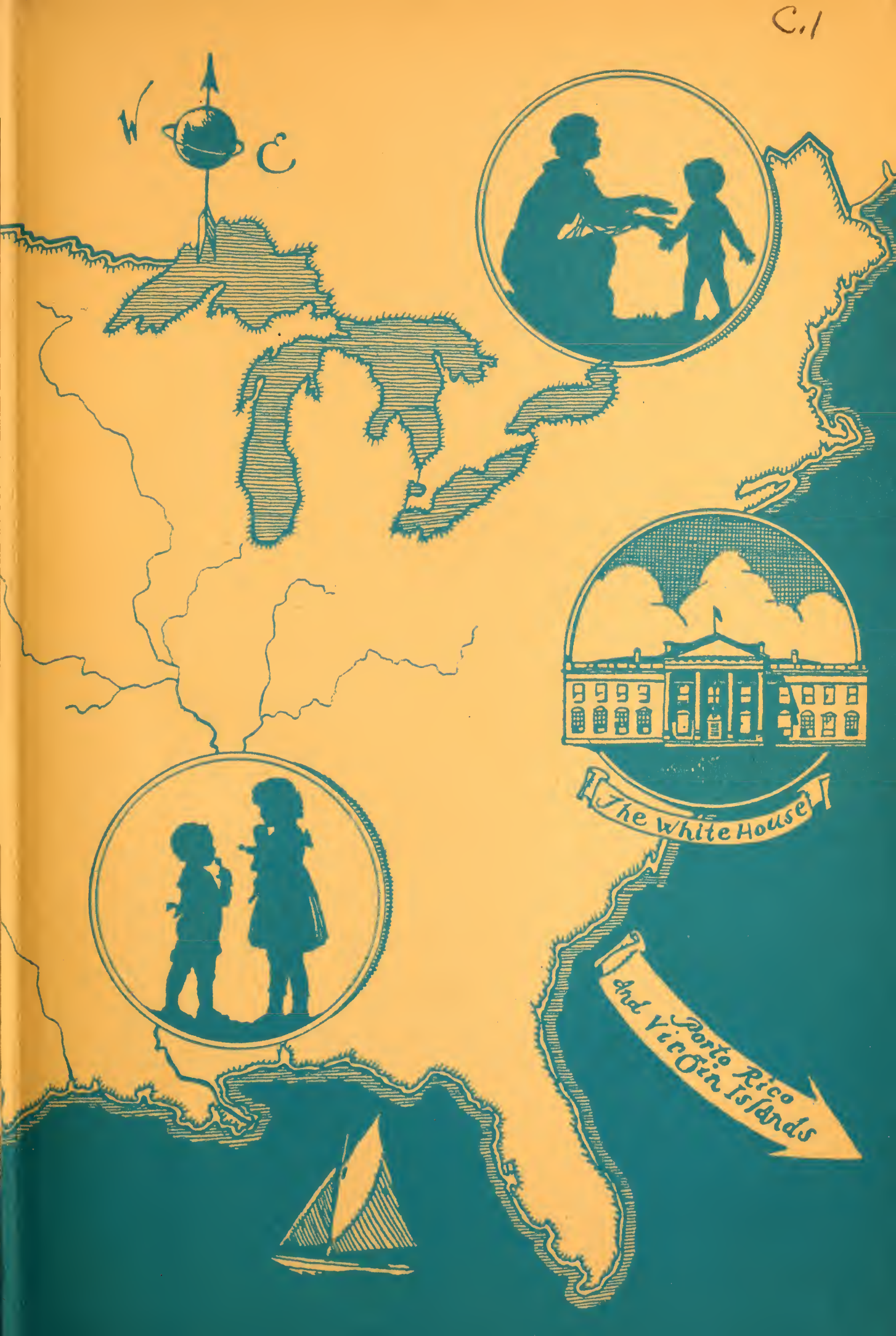

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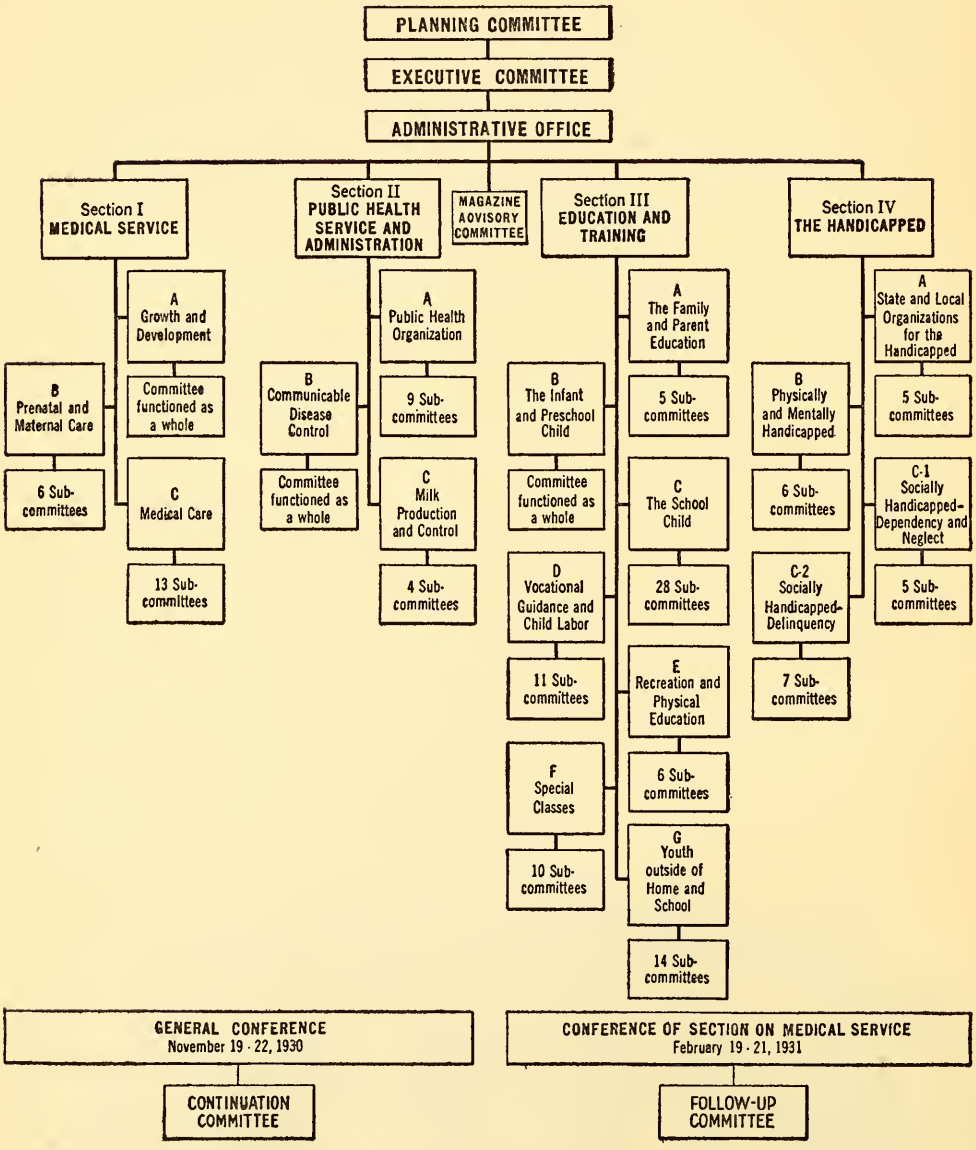

Section III—EDUCATION AND TRAINING

F. J. Kelly, Ph.D., *Chairman*

Committee on

VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE AND CHILD LABOR

Anne S. Davis, *Chairman*

VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE

X For every child an education which, through the discovery and development of his individual abilities, prepares him for life; and through training and vocational guidance prepares him for a living which will yield him the maximum of satisfaction

From THE CHILDREN'S CHARTER

A MORNING LINE-UP IN THE JUNIOR PLACEMENT DIVISION OF A CITY SCHOOL VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE BUREAU

VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE

REPORT OF THE SUBCOMMITTEE ON
VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE
M. EDITH CAMPBELL, *Chairman*

WHITE HOUSE CONFERENCE ON
CHILD HEALTH AND PROTECTION

THE CENTURY CO.
NEW YORK LONDON

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Dedicated to

THE CHILDREN OF AMERICA

WHOSE FACES ARE TURNED TOWARD THE LIGHT OF A NEW DAY AND WHO MUST BE PREPARED TO MEET A GREAT ADVENTURE

SECTION III

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FOREWORD

Any plan for child health and protection must give careful consideration to vocational guidance. Already this comparatively new movement to help boys and girls choose and prepare for their life work has proved its social, economic, and human values. And the constantly growing complexity of vocational life emphasizes the importance of extending this scientific method, to replace haphazard choice, from a few communities to all. It is safe to say that the greatest single need in vocational guidance is more vocational guidance.

To the Vocational Guidance Subcommittee of the White House Conference on Child Health and Protection was assigned the task of studying the chief aspects of this movement. The questionnaire method, supplemented by reference to valuable technical studies, was used to secure the basic information for the Subcommittee's report. Questionnaires were sent to four groups: public and parochial schools, social agencies, employment agencies, and state departments of labor.

In the first group, they were sent to the superintendents of schools in 288 cities, representing every state and the District of Columbia. Six of these cities had a population of less than 25,000, according to the Census of 1920, but were included because they were the largest cities in their respective states. The others were chosen because they had a population in 1920 of 25,000 or over. Distribution, according to population, of the 288 cities was as follows:

Group 1. Cities with a population of 25,000 to 49,999 (including the six specially chosen)	149
Group 2. Cities with a population of 50,000 to 99,999	74
Group 3. Cities with a population of over 100,000	65
Total	288

Replies were received from 169 of the 288 cities (in twenty-eight states). Four replied by letter only, stating that practically no vocational guidance was carried on. Twelve cities for which questionnaires were returned gave such scant information that they could not be included in the tabulation. Three other questionnaires were excluded, one because it did not identify the city from which it came, two because they were received after the tabulations were completed.

The tabulations were, therefore, based upon the questionnaires returned by 150 cities that gave sufficient information to be tabulated. The distribution of these cities, according to population, was as follows:

Cities of Group 1	72
Cities of Group 2	42
Cities of Group 3	36
Total	150

All tabulations were made according to these three groups: Group 1 including the 72 smaller cities, Group 2 the 42 medium-sized cities, and Group 3 the 36 larger cities studied.

Special mention should be made of those who assisted in the writing of the reports: Dr. John M. Brewer; Dr. Mary Holmes Stevens Hayes; M. Edith Campbell; Cleo Murtland, and Dr. W. Carson Ryan, and of Helen Becht and Mary Corre, research assistants, who compiled the material for the report and assisted with the writing.

The Subcommittee is indebted to the Federal Board for Vocational Education, the Office of Education, the Children's Bureau, and government bureaus which furnished material or in any way contributed to this volume, and to many persons who served as consultants.

Finally, acknowledgment is due to Dr. George E. Myers, University of Michigan, to Dr. O. Latham Hatcher of the Southern Woman's Educational Alliance, and to all those persons and organizations that placed at the disposal of the Subcommittee reports and unpublished material.

ANNE S. DAVIS

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VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE

PRINCIPLES AND PRACTICE

A SWIFTLY changing economic and social world has made demands upon educational procedures for adjustment to the needs of the individual child. These changes have brought about problems nation-wide in scope which have commanded governmental consideration.

The unchanging, constant factor has been work and its influence upon the development of the individual. Its relation to the health and protection of the child has made vocational guidance a strategic and potent instrument in public and private systems of education; a growing interest of industrial management; and the most hopeful foundation for citizenship. Through adolescence and far into adult life vocational choices and decisions call for wise advice and thorough information.

In attempting to meet this responsibility there have grown up within and without our educational systems certain concepts, terminologies, purposes, and principles of vocational guidance. These we believe cannot be presented more clearly or adequately than in the *Principles and Practice of Vocational Guidance*,[1] formulated, during years of experience and study, by committees of the National Vocational Guidance Association. We quote them as the necessary preliminaries to our study:

"Vocational Guidance is primarily the task of the vocational counselor, or the personnel worker in education and industry. The teacher, educational administrator, parent,

[1] Formulated in 1921, revised in 1924 and in 1930, by the National Vocational Guidance Association. Cambridge, Mass., Bureau of Vocational Guidance, 1930.

and social, civic and religious worker, though engaged chiefly in other forms of individual service, find themselves involved also in vocational guidance activities.

"Problems of adjustment to health, religion, recreation, to family and friends, to school and to work, may be included under the general term 'guidance.' This statement concerns itself with educational and vocational guidance as defined in the following section:

DEFINITION OF TERMS

"Vocational guidance is the process of assisting the individual to choose an occupation, prepare for it, enter upon and progress in it. As preparation for an occupation involves decisions in the choice of studies, choice of curriculums, and the choice of schools and colleges, it becomes evident that vocational guidance cannot be separated from educational guidance.

"The term *vocational* applies to all gainful occupations, as listed in the United States Census of Occupations, and home making.

"As vocational guidance and vocational education are linked together in many minds, a statement of this relationship may clarify the situation. Vocational education is the giving of training to persons who desire to work in a specific occupation. Vocational guidance offers information and assistance which leads to the choice of an occupation and the training which precedes it. It does not give such training. The term *vocational* refers to any occupation, be it medicine, law, carpentry, or nursing. Preparation for many occupations and professions must be planned in the secondary school and in college by taking numerous courses which are not usually known as vocational. Vocational guidance concerns itself, therefore, with pupils in the academic courses in high school or students of the liberal arts in college, as well as with the pupils in the trade and commercial courses which have become known as vocational education.

THE NEED FOR VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE

"Since work occupies one-half of the waking time of most individuals, it should represent the active expression of the

whole personality. In view of this important function, careful study should be given to all of the problems involved in vocational activity.

"In this country nearly 50 per cent of the children who enter the first grade leave school by the end of the eighth grade; about three-fifths of those who enter high school leave before graduation. Not only these, but college graduates as well, go to work with little knowledge of the opportunities and of the problems of vocational life. The professions, business, and industry are constantly increasing in technicality, complexity, and specialization. Parents rarely know enough about the separate occupations in this highly organized situation to be able to advise their own children. Organized vocational guidance must be provided to meet the needs of the modern world.

"Vocational guidance of some sort is inevitable. No one can avoid the need for making occupational decisions. Adequate guidance should be provided under supervision to offset the unwise and false guidance of untrustworthy advertisements, suggestions, selfishness, ignorance, and other prejudiced or unreliable sources.

"Proper vocational adjustment for each citizen not only means individual happiness but avoids enormous social and economic waste. The importance of vocational guidance applies thus both to the individual and to the state.

PRINCIPLES

"The underlying principles which govern vocational guidance activities are based upon the recognition of individual differences, of the complexity of modern occupational life, of the right of the individual to make his own choices, and upon the realization that the adjustment of an individual to his occupation is an ever changing situation.

"No two individuals are identical in natural endowment or environmental conditions. Every effort must be made to know the individual, his intelligence, his special abilities, his understanding of work, his health, educational achievement, work experience, temperament, character, interests, and his social and economic situation. These individual differences call for individual attention. To provide equal opportunity

for all, it becomes necessary to accord separate treatment to each.

"The advancement of science and social and economic changes make it increasingly difficult to be familiar with all occupations in their diversity and in their degree of specialization. The nature of the actual work to be done, its educational requirements, its demands on health, intelligence, special ability, temperament and character, the opportunity it offers for training and advancement, the remuneration, the working conditions and the importance of the occupation and of the industry—these elements need to be known for specific occupations. This information should be supplemented by a knowledge of educational institutions and of the type of training they offer.

"While the individual should thus receive assistance in knowing his own qualifications and the occupational and educational opportunities available, absolute freedom of choice is his inherent right and is as important for his development as equality of opportunity.

"Vocational guidance must take account of possible variations in the condition and personality of the individual and of the changes likely to occur in occupations. Since there is a necessity for making continuous adjustments, vocational guidance must offer constant service to the individual.

PRACTICE

Specialized Activities

"Study of the Individual

"All available data bearing on the individual should be consulted before an attempt is made to give counsel and advice.

"The cumulative school record which from year to year keeps an account of all school experiences, physical and mental tests, recreational interests and activities, and of family situation, shows more clearly than any other one instrument the development of the pupil in each respect and the direction which his occupational interests and ability may take. This record should be begun in the kindergarten and first grade and should follow the student through the senior high school and college. Supplementary and specialized rec-

ords should be assembled, with the cumulative record, in one place accessible to those responsible for the study and assistance of the individual.

"Tests of various sorts furnish valuable data regarding the individual. Care should be taken to see that all tests of intelligence, abilities, or achievements (where these are used other than for purposes of experimentation) shall be chosen from those standardized by reliable and scientific procedure. The giving and grading of tests should be in the hands of carefully trained people and the administration and supervision of a testing program should be the function of a trained and experienced psychologist.

"Interviews held with parents, and with teachers, principals, social workers, physicians and others, throw light on the personality of the individual and his possible future plans. Each interview should be described in the appropriate space on the individual record.

"Study of the Occupation

"For the purpose of vocational guidance, studies should be made both of separate occupations and of certain industries as a whole.

"In the making of such studies, information gained by visits to places of employment should be supplemented by the literature on the subject and through data secured from employers' associations, labor unions, professional organizations, government departments, and so forth.

"Careful and uniform records should be kept of each visit and interview on forms provided for the purpose.

"Whenever possible the results of these studies should be printed in condensed form appropriate for the use of the students concerned. Longer and more detailed reports should be made available for vocational counselors, placement workers, and teachers of the class in occupations.

"Copies of occupational studies made in other vocational guidance bureaus should be collected and made available for use.

"Counseling

"Group Counseling. The study of the general and local occupations, vocational opportunities and the problems of

the occupational world, should be carried on in organized classes, for all students in junior and senior high schools, continuation schools, evening schools, and colleges. In such classes the student should gain an acquaintance with his own school unit, with the forms of higher education, the general field of occupations, and a method of studying occupations wherewith he can meet future vocational problems. These classes should be given in appropriate years, especially preliminary to times of choice of curriculums, entrance upon a new school unit, and before decisions in regard to withdrawal from school (for example, before the pupil reaches the close of the compulsory school age).

"Efforts at group counseling should help the student and future worker to understand his relationships to other workers and to appreciate that all honest labor should be considered a service to society.

"Classes in occupations should be taught by vocational counselors or specially trained teachers who are given time to keep informed on occupational opportunities and on the best methods of presenting this information.

"Counselors teaching the class in occupations should study the educational offerings of the community through its schools, museums, art galleries, libraries, and so forth, in order to enable children and adults to use these opportunities in preparation for a vocation or for further school or college training.

"Visits to factories and business establishments, and talks by representatives of various trades and professions supplement the classroom discussions of occupations and the training for them. In connection with these visits and talks care should be taken that the emphasis be placed upon the issues which concern the one who might be entering the field of work under discussion. There should be safeguards against the orator who does not know his subject, and the poor speaker. . .

"Vocational conferences, special lectures, such as those organized by the Young Men's Christian Association, Young Women's Christian Association, Kiwanis, and Rotary Clubs, and other social and civic organizations, are further means of giving occupational information.

"Folders and pamphlets giving detailed information about an occupation and the preparation it requires, can be addressed to young people and to others faced with vocational choice.

"*Individual Counseling.* Counseling is primarily an individual matter and is more apt to be successful when conducted on this basis. Group counseling should therefore be followed by individual counseling. Both are a responsibility of all types of schools and colleges. In the interests of adult guidance counseling is being recognized as a responsibility also of various social and civic organizations.

"Counselors should interview individuals at regular intervals, particularly at such critical times as one year before the school-leaving age, on promotion from one school to another, or from school to college. All pupils planning to leave school or college should have an interview with the vocational counselor. Persons needing readjustment in their occupational situation should have the opportunity of an interview with a vocational counselor.

"From a knowledge of occupations and the study of the individual, the vocational counselor helps the young person to consider his vocational interests in the light of his own abilities and personal situation.

"Counselors should not encourage students to decide upon a vocation too early or too hurriedly. Such choice should be made only after the study of occupations and try-out experience. Provision should be made for reconsideration, even after the working period has begun. Care should be taken that the choice is made by the individual himself, and that the counselor serves only to assist him in making transitions and in becoming adjusted to a new situation.

"In order to help the individual to make educational and vocational adjustments, the counselor should confer with parents and teachers and make use of the facilities provided by the whole educational system. The service of psychological clinics and of recreational, health, and relief agencies outside the school should also be used.

"In the case of financially handicapped persons the counselor should make use of available scholarships which would

facilitate further education in accord with vocational plans. This applies to school pupils above the compulsory school age as well as to college students.

"On the permanent record kept for each individual the vocational counselor should note new developments in the plans of the student and any activities which have been undertaken in his behalf.

"Placement

"In choosing a position or a vocation, the young person, with the help of the counselor, should take into consideration his physical condition, educational achievement, intelligence, special abilities, and interests in relation to the corresponding requirements of the occupation and the opportunities it offers.

"Placement should come only after a careful and persistent effort has been made to keep in school and college those who would seem to be able to profit from further education of the type available. Scholarships and other forms of student loans should be sought for those who could not otherwise continue with their education.

"Continuous contact with working children should be achieved wherever possible by provision for part-time employment and part-time attendance at school.

"Assistance in securing a position should be accompanied, whenever appropriate, by advice about supplementary study and possible advancement.

"For the purpose of knowing the changing conditions, personnel, and job requirements, there should be frequent investigation of all establishments in which placements are made.

"Adequate records should be kept of each person who uses the placement service, of employers' requisitions, of the results of visits to firms, daily reports, and all information which accumulates concerning occupational conditions.

"Placement or employment counselors should cooperate with personnel managers, labor organizations, employers' associations, government, school and university officials, social and civic organizations, and others interested in problems of work.

"All the placement activities within a school system

should be under one administration or supervision so that there may be a standard common policy in dealing with the business world.

"Non-commercial and public employment agencies for persons under twenty-one years of age should be conducted in the closest possible relation with the public schools. For the purposes of standardization and coordination, all private non-commercial agencies for aiding persons to secure employment should work in close cooperation with each other and especially with any public placement authority. Commercial employment bureaus should be supervised by means of a state licensing system.

"Employment Certification

"As large numbers of boys and girls leave school and apply for employment certificates without appreciating the significance of this step, it is essential that the supervision of this situation be considered a vocational guidance activity. Such pupils should not leave school without interviewing the vocational counselor. Furthermore, the employment certification itself should be conducted not only with a regard for legal requirements but with a view to offering information and assistance in occupational problems and in matters of training and future vocational choices.

"Follow-up

"For several years after leaving school or college, students should be encouraged to keep in touch with the vocational and employment counselors of the school system or educational institution which they last attended. In this way further choices and adjustments may be made with a minimum of waste and discomfort to the individual. Current information can be secured about occupational conditions. Curriculum changes and trade training courses can be influenced by the experience and needs of former students.

"This follow-up should be accomplished through personal interviews and correspondence and should be conducted with the closest cooperation between school principals, college faculties, vocational counselors, employment counselors, and those in charge of occupational studies.

"Research

"Research is an important part of a vocational guidance program. It should serve as a way of providing additional data regarding the occupational world, and as a means of improving the tools used for studying the individual.

"Studies should be conducted which are intended to show the relation between the vocational success and happiness of the indivdual and the measurements or other factors which led him to choose the type of occupation in which he is engaged. Suggestions for study which have been made in this statement under the headings, 'Study of the Individual,' 'Study of the Occupation,' 'Follow-up,' and 'Related Activities' bear on this central problem of research in vocational guidance.

"Even if finished research is not possible, the accumulation of accurate data for this purpose is an obligation that every vocational guidance worker owes to the ultimate success of the work.

Related Activities

"The adoption of a varied program suited to individual needs enables pupils to remain in school and to make the best use of their natural endowments. This will ultimately facilitate vocational choice.

"The vocational motive can be developed through many subjects taught in schools and colleges. While their cultural quality should not be minimized, the relative value of different subjects for different vocations may be made clear by the discussion of such simple facts as, for example, the importance of a command of English for the engineer, or the extent of the use of mathematics in such diverse fields as carpentry, medicine, and economics.

"Try-out or exploratory courses in school, part-time work in industry, club work and similar activities aid in stimulating the vocational motive and, through these experiences, in discovering interest and abilities.

"Information about the school population, proportion of 'drop-outs,' and other material gathered by bureaus of educational research, is of utmost importance to those planning a program of vocational guidance.

"Studies of the vocational needs of the community with

a view to curricular revision lead to conditions especially helpful in the problems of guidance. . . .

"The investigation of alluring short-cuts to fortune, through short training courses, of selling propositions and vague advertisements of positions, is a necessary part of trustworthy vocational guidance.

"The choice of a vocation is greatly complicated by such occupational problems as industrial depressions, irregular employment, industrial accident and disease, fatigue, wage rates, automatization of industry. Cooperation is essential between vocational guidance workers and economists, physicians, psychologists, employers, labor leaders, social workers, government officials and all others at work on these problems.

ORGANIZATION AND ADMINISTRATION

"A program for vocational guidance in order to attain its maximum efficiency can best be conducted by a special bureau or separate department responsible directly to the superintendent of schools or the president of a college or university. Such a department should cover all of the specialized activities listed under 'Practice.'

"Because of the variation in local conditions, it is impossible to prescribe an exact form of organization. In the school system of a large community, however, the director of vocational guidance should have assistant directors each in charge of a division of the work.

"The vocational counselor in each junior and each senior high school should receive technical assistance and supervision from a director of this branch of the work.

"Placement or employment counselors should report to a director in charge of this activity. The placement work of a school system should be concentrated in one or more offices, depending on the size of the city. If several offices are organized there must be a clearance method which permits an exchange of information several times during the day. Employment statistics should be kept for the use of the schools and should be sent to state and federal bureaus desiring this information.

"Employment certification should be under state super-

vision and delegated by the state to the local superintendent of schools. In order that it may be conducted as a vocational guidance activity, the superintendent should in turn assign the responsibility to the vocational guidance department where it should be carried on in close cooperation with placement work. Care should be taken that an adequate number of counselors is provided for both certification and placement in order that these two phases of the work do not engulf the other functions of the department.

"A director of occupational studies should pursue continuous research on local vocational and educational opportunities. Whether assistants are provided for this work or not, the employment counselors, the vocational counselors, and the teachers of the class in occupations should make special studies under his direction.

"The director of the department of vocational guidance not only coordinates these specialized activities, but should work in close cooperation with those engaged in related activities and, whenever possible, with the classroom teachers themselves, whose understanding and help are essential to the continuous guidance of young people of the city.

"A bureau of vocational guidance in a college or university, or in a social organization, does not present such intricate problems of organization. Most of the activities would be conducted from one central bureau, the emphasis on each varying with the type of institution or agency.

"The relationship between public and private schools, the college, social and civic agencies, should be so developed that these institutions may offer a complete and continuous program of vocational guidance to those who are in school and to those who are no longer connected with any educational institution. For local problems, this might be accomplished through a community council on vocational guidance. For such problems as the cooperation between secondary schools and colleges, joint committees of the appropriate national associations can be organized.

"A council on vocational guidance should include representatives of educational institutions and social organizations especially interested in the problem, representatives of employers and of labor, of state departments of labor, personnel workers and other appropriate persons. The coun-

cil might break up into a number of advisory committees for purposes of assisting in the special divisions of the guidance program.

"Through the council, the local vocational guidance associations, and teachers' organizations and institutes, every effort should be made to secure the intelligent interest and cooperation of all teachers, educational administrators and others concerned with the vocational life of young and old in the community.

EQUIPMENT AND TRAINING

"Since the service of vocational guidance is of such growing importance and of such a specialized nature, it is evident that it should be given only by persons having the necessary personal qualities and special experience and training. Definite minimum standards should be established.

"The personal qualities of the vocational counselor should include interest in people and an understanding of their problems, tact, patience, the spirit of service, together with a respect for scientific accuracy and an appreciation of research methods.

"The counselor should have a good general education, including the study of economics, sociology, psychology, education, and statistics.

"As specialized training the counselor should have formal courses in vocational guidance at a college or university, preferably as graduate study. These courses should include field work, namely, supervised participation in such activities as counseling, placement, occupational studies, visiting teaching or other form of social case work, psychological testing and so forth.

"The counselor can profit by various forms of experience, such as public school teaching, social case work, personnel administration or other activities in industrial and commercial establishments, and work in a psychological clinic or in a child guidance clinic."

THE STUDY OF THE INDIVIDUAL

THE STUDY OF THE INDIVIDUAL

THE VALUE OF RECORDS

TO begin *The Study of the Individual* with a discussion of the subject of records and record keeping, may seem putting the cart before the horse. There are still certain persons who claim "never to forget a face" and rebel against the whole idea of record keeping as so much unnecessary red tape. They say, "Give me half an hour's talk with the boy and I can tell you more about him than all your cumulative records and objective measurements can offer." To such arguments the only reply necessary is a simple calculation of the possible case load of boys and girls that a worker can handle, divided into the population of the school or grade whose children are to be studied. This meets the question, "Are individual records essential?" so adequately that it is not necessary to marshal the additional arguments of the shortness of even the best memories, and what happens when "the facts in a worker's head" are needed when that worker is absent; or even the vital one of how this information is to be passed on to the next institution with which the child comes in contact.

Teachers have been among the worst offenders in the matter of records and record keeping. They have regarded it as an additional task imposed upon an already heavy schedule and have resented it accordingly. Unfortunately, also, they have been inclined to regard it simply as "more clerical work" without recognizing its value and significance. It is for this reason that efforts to introduce a cumulative record card, which follows the child through his progress in the various schools, have met with comparatively small success in public school systems.

It must be admitted, however, that in many cases very little effort has been made to convince the teaching body of their value. Besides, in some instances, after elaborate records have been developed, practically no use has been made of them, and a teacher rightly objects to such waste of time. Certainly, keeping careful individual records in an institution where no guidance or personnel program is in operation is a fruitless effort, well calculated to arouse antagonism toward the entire process.

But, however difficult, it is necessary to convince teachers and others who stand in a supervisory relation to young people that adequate, objective, and interchangeable records are indispensable.[1]

Three years ago two related studies were undertaken to meet these requirements. In 1927, under a special grant, the American Council on Education financed a study on personnel methods and appointed a committee of some twenty-five distinguished educators to conduct it, under the chairmanship of Dean Herbert E. Hawkes of Columbia College. To one of its subcommittees was assigned the task of preparing a suitable college personnel record. President L. B. Hopkins of Wabash College was chairman of this subcommittee and the work was continued over three years.

At about the same time, Doctor Ben Wood of Columbia University prepared for the State of Pennsylvania, under a grant from the Carnegie Foundation, a cumulative record card for the secondary school level. The task of preparing the college personnel record and a manual for its use was therefore delegated to Doctor Wood, subject to the advice and criticism of the subcommittee and the committee of the whole. In the preparation of this card and manual, a wide survey was made and all the work that had been done in this field was consulted, notably the activities of the Educational Records Bureau and the Strayer-Engel-

[1] An excellent example of a useful record system is the Personnel Charts of the Providence, R. I., public schools, in which the pupil's chronological age, mental age, and I. Q. are stated in graphic form, with his actual and expected school achievement.

hardt series of the National Association of Secondary School Principals. Both the college and the school card have been used in a number of colleges and schools. In twenty cities in Pennsylvania the school card is in operation through the entire school system.

Since the work of this subcommittee, paralleled by Doctor Wood's Pennsylvania study along the same lines, represents the most nearly complete and best controlled study of the subject, we accept its recommendation on the theory and practice of cumulative personnel records.

For the purposes of guidance and placement, the individual should be studied by the triple approach of what he is now, what he has done or has had done to him in the past, and what can be predicted for him in the future. Further, two principles must be recognized in such a study: the necessity of considering a child as an individual rather than as part of a group; and the recognition that a child is not a fixed and static entity but a continuously changing individual whose development, past and future, is often more significant than his present status.

The speed and accuracy with which an applicant performs a typing test will serve as reliable measure for an employer to determine whether the individual has, at the time of application, the skill necessary for the job. The score made by a pupil in an educational achievement test in French will enable the principal to determine whether the child shall be assigned to a second or a third year class. Positive scores on such tests as these give reliable and satisfactory measures for educational and vocational placement, in that they are objective and standardized records of accomplishment and of readiness for the work at hand.

Like examination reports and class marks and single interviews, however, they lack completeness for purposes of vocational guidance, in that they give no picture of the individual's potentialities in terms of his developmental history, his interests, and his capacity for progress. A student's failure to pass a French test may be due to a small amount of study, a low grade of general ability, or a lack of interest

in the subject, not to mention a number of possible emotional factors.

An individual represents the sum of his past experiences. The consistency of his accomplishments or failures and the variety and persistency of his interests are indications of his possible development, just as intelligence test scores and quotients are indications of his ability to learn with ease and facility. Physical handicaps, temporary or permanent, serious or persistent emotional disturbances, and those factors in his social history, such as extreme poverty, which have a long time application, must likewise be taken into account before assistance is offered in making an educational or vocational choice.

With a view, therefore, to presenting a picture of the child not only as he is in an immediate momentary cross-section, but as showing the events which explain or modify the immediate picture, Doctor Wood's card is ruled into parallel spaces, representing successive chronological years and providing in each column space for recording "all items of information that change or may change as the individual grows older. Family history and factors which do not change, or which change relatively little, are provided for on another page."[1] By reading across from left to right, one can see that throughout his school career his marks may all be consistently high, low, or average, or that he may be consistently good in some subjects and consistently poor in others, or again that he may do poorly in a subject and then recover or start well and fall down later.

Besides his educational record, there is the year-by-year report of his extracurricular activities, his record of unusual accomplishments, and the interests he reports each year, his educational and vocational plans, and the record of his work experiences. Space is provided for personality ratings and reports on social adjustments. The yearly attendance report is listed in each column, as is also the general health record, mental and physical, and the report on discipline. Intelli-

[1] *Educational Record Supplement No. 8,* July, 1928, p. 17. American Council on Education, Washington, D. C.

gence test quotient and scores on other objective tests are listed in columns for the years they were given. The chronological arrangement thus serves to give not only a developmental picture reading from left to right, but reading up and down it shows the interrelation and explanation of the various items.

A cumulative record, President Hopkins's committee further agreed, should be designed for "the typical pupil and provide detailed data mainly on his educational history, caring for other and sometimes more crucially important aspects of his development only in general terms." It is not intended to include all the information which the educational institution has, or should have, about the student, but should give "a fairly complete and meaningful outline of his educational achievements, both curricular and extracurricular, plus general indexes or guides to other significant types of information that should be taken into account before any crucial decisions are made respecting the case, as, for example, a notation in the health line of an otherwise normal record to indicate that the detailed health record should be consulted."[1] Items should be recorded in terms of uniform objective measures which will be understandable when the pupil moves from one educational or industrial institution to another.

For the guidance of atypical individuals, intensive case work is necessary and the assistance of special bureaus and clinics should be obtained. Vocational and educational guidance is, however, a service that should be extended to all children.

The administrative machinery of various educational institutions differs, as well as the emphasis which different educators place on certain items, and for that reason the record forms which Doctor Wood has devised for secondary schools and colleges are merely illustrative. The criteria for a good cumulative record card, however, have been summarized as follows:[1]

[1] *Educational Record Supplement No. 8,* July, 1928, pp. 17–18.

The record form must show trends of development of abilities and interests.

It must be based on accurate measures and concrete observations.

The record must provide a means for recording measures and observations in comparable and meaningful terms, wherever such measures are available, but must at the same time provide for convenient record keeping and clear differentiations of whatever measures, objective and non-comparable, may be available.

The data should appear in a form and order capable of showing their interrelations, thus presenting a coherent and integrated picture of the individual.

The record should be capable of quick reading. Hence it should be in graphic form in so far as possible.

It should be fairly complete for the large mass of normal children, requiring auxiliary cards only for extremely atypical subjects.

It should be reproducible, inexpensively, accurately, and quickly, for example by photostating.

It should be accompanied by a carefully written and amply illustrated manual of directions.

It should be administratively convenient, showing all available information on one continuous record form and permitting the collection of further data, by auxiliary cards and otherwise, for current use in connection with the previous record and for periodic sifting and entering on the permanent record.

PSYCHOLOGICAL TESTS

In the study of the individual for educational and vocational guidance, psychological tests as an objective measure of mental capacity and educational achievement are one of the most valuable instruments. Because of their objective and uniform quality, they are more reliable than school marks as a measure of the child's ability. They tend to equalize such inequalities as teachers' judgments, differences in the quality

of teaching, loss of time in school attendance, and variations in the amount of the pupil's application because of poor teacher-pupil or school-pupil adjustment, disturbing social or emotional conditions, or other factors which prevent the expenditure of an equal amount of time and energy by all pupils on their school work. Serving thus as a general measure of potential capacity rather than a record of momentary accomplishment, they aid in the guidance of the individual by helping the counselor to advise a method or a type of training in accordance with possibilities for eventual accomplishment.

The earliest use made of psychological tests, and apparently the most common use made of them still, is to select mental defectives for segregation in institutions or in special rooms for defectives. Out of 150 school systems reporting the use of tests, 132 stated that they employed them for this purpose and 5 cities reported this as the sole use of such tests. This topic is extensively treated in the White House Conference report on the Physically and Mentally Handicapped IV B.

For the great rank and file of the pupil population, the use of psychological tests in vocational and educational guidance is concerned with grade placement, type of course recommended, and rate of progress made. The test method is employed to divide the grades, where the size of the grade is sufficiently large to make division possible, into sections of about equal capacity for learning, so that the speed of progress and the content of the course will approximate the maximum capacity of all pupils enrolled in their particular section. The returns on the questionnaire used in collecting data for this report[1] indicate that psychological tests are used for classifying or dividing grades into sections in 111 out of 150 school systems, and for recommending special types of courses or training in 109 school systems. Grade placements, promotions, and individual adjustments to school progress were mentioned as uses for psychological tests in 68 school systems.

[1] See Foreword, and Appendix A, p. 305.

The third frequent use made of psychological tests, especially valuable in vocational and educational counseling, is in connection with those maladjusted pupils whose revolt against their lack of adjustment takes the form of behavior disturbance. In many cases the psychological test reveals that the ability of the child and the mental requirements of his school day are not in agreement; the child is faced with a task either beyond his capacity or inadequate to absorb his energies, and the remedy can be sought in a change of grade or program. In many cases, however, the cause of the pupil's maladjustment does not lie in this lack of harmony between his educational task and his intellectual capacity for meeting it, but in some other phase of his social and emotional life; and in this case the psychological test serves only as a means of eliminating educational maladjustment as a possible causal factor. The value that psychological tests are believed to have in connection with these behavior problems, however, is shown by the fact that 112 school systems reported that they so employed them.

In addition to these uses, 45 cities out of the 80 where scholarship funds were available, reported that they made use of tests as a means of choosing candidates for scholarship grants; and 43 cities out of the total of 46 where central employment bureaus were maintained by the schools, said that psychological tests were used in connection with the selection of applicants for jobs.

Kinds of Tests Used

There are nearly a hundred different standardized intelligence tests on the market. One hundred and fifteen cities reported that they gave individual tests which were some version of the Binet-Simon. Five cities gave performance tests (Pintner-Paterson, Healy, Porteus). One city gave the Stenquist Mechanical Aptitude Test, and two the Downey Test.

In group testing, 57 cities used the Otis and 13 others the Otis Self-Administering Test; 49, the Terman; 35, the

National; 31, some form of the Detroit tests; 14, the Pintner-Cunningham; 11, the Illinois; and from one to 7 used various combinations of the Kuhlman-Anderson, Haggerty, Dearborn, Thorndike, McCall's Multi-Mental, Miller, Bram, Thurstone College Entrance, Cole-Vincent, and the Chicago Public Schools tests. The Healy Picture Completion, the Detroit Mechanical Aptitude, the McQuarry Mechanical, and the Strong Vocational Interests tests were each reported as used in one city.

Forty-eight cities used educational achievement tests, of which the Stanford Achievement Test was the most commonly chosen (33 cities). Three cities used the Pressy Achievement tests, 2 each the Gates and the Monroe Silent Reading; and the use of the following tests was reported from one city each: Burgess Reading, Raubenheimer Information, Nelson-Spencer-Gregory History, Gregory-Spencer Geography, Hill Civics, Hotz Algebra, Cross English, and Columbia Research.

Tests of Educational Achievement

Educational achievement tests as a valuable means of educational placement are now generally accepted. The number of different tests of this sort is very large and will grow larger. This increase is necessary in order not only that all subjects of the school curriculum may be provided with this type of objective measurement, but also that a sufficient number of forms, equal in difficulty and therefore interchangeable, may be available so that familiarity with the test will not give an undue advantage.

As the best indication of the recognized value and need for this means of measuring the educational achievement of a student, a bureau, the Cooperative Test Service, has been established through the generosity of the Rockefeller Foundation, to make and standardize these objective examinations. This bureau will furnish tests, primarily of college level, but applicable also to secondary schools.

An annotated bibliography prepared by Doctor Clifford Woody and published in the *Yearbook of the National Society of College Teachers of Education* gives the most complete picture of the extent of these tests already available.

It is to be noted that in the types of psychological tests reported very little use is indicated of anything other than general intelligence and educational achievement tests. Tests intended to measure emotional and temperament qualities and tests of special aptitude or abilities such as music and drawing, are apparently rarely employed. A list of such tests, rated in the order of their effectiveness, is given by T. L. Kelly in his book on *Interpretation of Educational Measurements.*

The Need for Personality Measurement

In any guidance or selection program, the necessity of taking into account those characteristics of an individual which go to make up that mythical entity variously termed his personality, character, or temperament, is fully recognized. In the adjustment of the individual to his world and the response of the world to the individual they play an important part. Any attempt at a study of the individual and his guidance program must, then, recognize their importance, for characteristics that are assets in one situation are liabilities in another.

The process, however, of getting an adequate picture of this phase of the child is extremely difficult. The common method of securing an opinion in these matters from persons with whom he is associated is highly unreliable. A nervous, high-strung teacher calls a boy "troublesome," while he is labeled "high-spirited" by a more placid colleague. Recognition, then, of the fallibility of unchecked judgments, as well as the necessity of finding some satisfactory method of securing a reliable measure of this aspect of the individual, has led to the development of personality-rating scales, check lists, word pictures, and other devices. Vari-

ous scales of this sort have been devised and used in the army, the civil service, and in a number of industrial and educational institutions.

For the past three years the Committee on Personnel Methods of the American Council on Education has had a subcommittee of experts at work on the subject of personality measurement under the direction of President D. H. Robertson of Goucher College. This committee, after a careful check-up on the reported results of the use of various scales, and after an experimental tryout of this method under carefully controlled conditions, states as its conclusion that "pending the development of objective measurements of personality traits, rating scales will be necessary for some time to come." It further says that in using rating scales an effort should be made to safeguard and improve rating procedures by adhering to the following principles:

Rate only traits observed by the rater.
Rate only those traits for which valid objective measurements are not now available.
If instructors are to rate large numbers of students the number of items should not exceed five.
Traits should be mutually exclusive.
No single trait should include unrelated modes of behavior.
Recognizing the importance of training raters in order to obtain valid results, the committee favors also the preparation of instructions for the guidance of raters and makers of word pictures.

It was the consensus of opinion, however, that objective tests of personality characteristics are a definite need in this field. The Strong Test of Vocational Interests, prepared for the use of college students, is one example of the type of test sought.

Where the Tests Are Given

In the questionnaire on which this study is based [1] the school superintendents were asked to state whether they made an attempt to test all children in a given grade and if so in what grade or grades such tests were given. Tests given only in cases of special need were reported from 15 cities. They did not make a practice of testing the entire school population at any time during its progress through the grades. Eleven cities reported that tests were given regularly in all grades, and one city that they were given from time to time for the purpose of city-wide surveys.

Replies from 120 cities were that they made such an inventory of their school population, and Table 1 shows the number of cities in which each of the various grades was tested:

TABLE 1

NUMBER OF CITIES GIVING TESTS, BY GRADES

Kinder-garten	1st	2nd	3rd	4th	5th	6th	7th	8th	9th	10th	11th	12th
20	32	14	16	21	10	59	26	38	35	11	6	18

The heavy concentration in the sixth and seventh grades marks the place where the child enters junior high school, and the eighth and ninth grades where he enters senior high school, according to whether the system is on the 8–4 or the 6–3–3 plan.[2] The practice of testing children as soon as they enter school is also common, 32 cities reporting tests given in the first grade and 20 in the kindergarten.

ORGANIZING A TESTING PROGRAM

The practice of giving psychological tests is thus seen to be a fairly well established practice as a means of studying

[1] *See* Foreword.

[2] In the "6–3–3" system, the elementary school includes grades 1 to 6, the junior high grades 7 to 9, the senior high grades 10 to 12. The "8–4" plan consists of 8 elementary and 4 high school grades.

the student for the purpose of facilitating his educational progress. In 18 cities psychological tests were the only vocational guidance activity employed. The question then arises, how the machinery for such testing is and should be established.

A central psychological testing bureau was reported by 75 cities in their school system and 8 additional cities said tests were administered by psychologists even though no centralized bureau existed. Fifty-nine cities reported that tests were given by teachers, and in 35 they were given by vocational counselors, visiting teachers, or other persons. In only 37 of these cities was the testing supervised or directed.

It would seem, therefore, that a considerable amount of unsupervised and undirected testing is in operation. In view of the steadily increasing interest in psychological testing, it became evident some years ago that such a situation would eventually arise. With the enormous increase in the number of pupils tested, the problem of giving and scoring tests could no longer be handled by the small body of psychologists trained in the graduate schools of our universities.

An attempt, therefore, was made to meet the situation by devising types of group tests whose administration called only for a strict and careful observance of the rules and whose scoring was based on a right or wrong answer that involved no question of individual judgment. Any accurate and conscientious worker could then, after a short period of training, successfully administer and score the great majority of the standard tests now in common use. This being the case, it would seem that the practice of having tests administered by "any teacher who had an easy schedule for that term" might be viewed with unconcern; but as a matter of fact, a large number of mistakes result from such indiscriminate selection of the tester and such uncritical acceptance of the results. The administration of individual tests, however, has not been rendered so nearly "fool-proof." The questions in many instances do not lend themselves to a yes or no answer, and a measure of interpretation is necessary in deciding whether the answer shall be graded as right or

wrong. The approach to the child and the varied methods of administering individual tests likewise demand a background of psychological training and experience.

As an example of the organization and functioning of a well established psychological bureau, showing the extent of its work and the use made of its findings, we quote from unpublished material prepared for the United States Children's Bureau, describing the psychological laboratory of the Cincinnati public schools. This laboratory forms a division of the Vocation Bureau of the Cincinnati public school system, and has been in operation over fourteen years.

Since 1916 the psychological laboratory of the Vocation Bureau, which during the early years of the bureau was used only for special research, has served the needs of the schools, the juvenile court, and local social agencies. The bureau clearly recognizes the use and value of mental examinations, as well as their limitations, and the work of the laboratory since its beginning has been characterized by high standards of scientific procedure. The director of the psychological laboratory holds the degree of doctor of philosophy in psychology and has had much practical experience in testing and evaluating tests, and all the examiners or laboratory assistants have had college training, including considerable work in psychology. All of them have been individually trained by the director in giving and scoring the tests that are used, and their early work is carefully supervised. The director is responsible for the policy of the laboratory, selects the tests to be used, and decides on the cases to be examined. She directs the giving, scoring, and checking of tests, as well as the social investigation of cases; and all recommendations must receive her approval or that of the assistant director. The laboratory gives both group and individual tests. All tests are given and scored by members of the laboratory staff, and sufficient checking is done to insure a high degree of accuracy.

In individual examinations the Stanford Revision of the Binet-Simon scale is given in practically every case. The Pintner-Paterson scale of performance tests or the Arthur scale are sometimes used as supplementary tests. As alternates for the Stanford Revision, the Kuhlman Revision or the Herring Revision are occasionally used. Educational tests very often are used in addition to the mental tests.

At present no attempt is made to use any form of trade test or tests for special aptitudes or manual dexterity. The laboratory refers cases that call for special physical or psychiatric examination to outside physicians or clinics, the great majority to a psychiatric clinic established by the Cincinnati Community Chest. Among the principal group tests used in the laboratory are the National, Terman, Haggerty, Otis, Detroit First-Grade, and Pintner-Cunningham. Group educational tests have been given in many schools by teachers, on the initiative of individual principals; the director of the laboratory approves the appropriations for educational-test materials used in such tests, but she takes no responsibility for the giving of the tests or the use made of them.

During the school year 1928 to 1929 the laboratory gave 2,271 individual tests and 10,981 group intelligence tests. Careful check-up is made in the central file for group tests to avoid giving retests where practice effect would invalidate the results.

On the basis of individual examinations, subnormal children are recommended for segregation in special rooms or, if of very low-grade mentality, for exclusion from school attendance. A mental test by the laboratory is required before a child may be assigned to a special room or excluded from school. Many pupils who are over age for their grades, if they are not distinctly subnormal, are recommended for transfer to opportunity classes or to observation classes, the latter chiefly where the child's school attainments are below what would be expected from his mental ability. Children failing in reading are made the object of particular study and when possible are sent to observation rooms. Before assignment to an observation class every pupil is given a mental examination by the laboratory. Many children who present behavior problems are sent to the laboratory for examination. The two psychologists at the juvenile court work in close cooperation with the staff of the Vocation Bureau and under the general supervision of the directors of the psychological laboratory of the bureau. The laboratory tests all children admitted to the school for crippled children, and many of the blind, the deaf, and the defective in speech, usually in cases where mental defect is suspected. If the test shows that a physically handicapped child is markedly subnormal he can be excluded from the class for his type of physical defect or admitted only on trial. The hospital school has a class for mentally subnormal children. Children are sent to the laboratory for examination from the employment certificate office. The "retarded employment certificate" is given on the basis of a

mental test by the laboratory. The laboratory also tests all applicants for scholarships. Wide use is also made of the test results by the vocational counselors.

Group testing was begun about 1920. During the first year or two of the group-testing program the laboratory tested a large proportion of the sixth grade children in the city. Now it gives a group test to all sixth grade children throughout the school system. The sixth grade testing was initiated by the Vocation Bureau. At the request of the supervisor of first grade work the laboratory for the last seven years has done extensive group testing in the first grade and has given individual tests to many first grade children whose test results and school attainments showed discrepancies. The laboratory does other group testing at the request of individual school principals; in one high school every entrant is tested, and in a number of schools the entire enrolment. The results of the group tests are used as an aid in classifying pupils according to their ability. In some schools the most able pupils are given an enriched course. All children applying for entrance to the classical or special college-preparatory high school are given a group test, and only those whose percentile rank for their ages is 70 or over and whose previous school records have been creditable are admitted.

The records of all tests are carefully kept and indexed. Reports are returned to the applying agency, and a copy is filed in the laboratory. In individual tests the report includes, in addition to the intelligence quotient, an analytical statement of mental and social characteristics based on such study as has been possible of the medical history of the child and his family, his social and economic environment, and so forth. Cases in which the child is feeble-minded or borderline in mentality or presents primarily a behavior problem are registered with the Social Service Exchange of the Council of Social Agencies. The cumulative record card, which was devised by the laboratory and which is in use throughout the schools, contains a record of test results. A copy of this card for every child who has left school is filed in the Vocation Bureau until the child is eighteen years old, when the cards are removed to the board of education storehouse.

The laboratory uses its records as the basis of various special studies.

RECOMMENDATIONS

1. For purposes of vocational guidance, knowledge of both the past and present experience and accomplishments of an individual is necessary, and to this end cumulative reports which provide a running record of an individual's progress through school and into industrial or higher educational institutions should be installed in every school system which attempts a vocational guidance program. It is felt that such records not only have value in the guidance of the child, but are of great assistance to the teacher or other supervisor in his dealings with the child. Such records should not be attempted unless use is to be made of them.

2. Information obtained from the study of the individual should as far as possible be expressed in terms of uniform and objective measures which are understandable when the pupil moves from one educational or industrial institution to another.

3. Psychological tests as a measure both of mental capacity and of educational achievement are one of the most valuable instruments for educational and vocational guidance. They constitute, however, only one factor in the study of the individual.

4. For assistance in giving vocational guidance there is need for the further development of objective tests of personality characteristics.

5. Where the size of the school system permits, giving psychological tests and in other ways measuring personality and accomplishment should be a function of a centralized bureau under the leadership of a trained psychologist, with an adequate staff of psychological assistants charged with the responsibility of supervising all the testing done by teachers or other school officials. That is, they should approve the material used, select the persons assigned to such work, and examine and assist in interpreting the results obtained.

6. The giving of psychological tests by untrained persons without this supervision should be discouraged.

COUNSELING

COUNSELING

PLACE AND PROGRESS

COUNSELING was without doubt the earliest form of vocational guidance in the schools. It was found wherever the pupil-teacher relationship was such that the one sought advice and the other gave helpful counsel. In the simply organized communities and schools of the early days, when each teacher had an opportunity to learn many things concerning the occupational problems of her own community and to know much about each child under her supervision, an informal and casual arrangement for giving educational and vocational counsel was probably sufficient to meet the needs. With the growth in size of the community and the complexity of its increasing number of occupations, and with the growth in size of our modern schools and the complexity of their organization, the average teacher today is unable to give the time that is necessary for the comprehensive study of occupational and pupil problems, both of which are essential as an adequate basis for counseling.

The present day full-time subject teacher must be a specialist in his field and, as a rule, he is unable to develop a well thought out program of work with individual pupils, save as this may relate to his teaching procedure. Pupils, on the other hand, are faced with an increasing number of adjustments, choices of curriculum and of vocational preparation within the school, and the relation of these to vocational choices in the community. They are more than ever before in need of counsel based on a real knowledge of all these problems which confront them.

To meet this pupil need, an increasing number of schools throughout the country have been releasing teachers or administrators from some of their other duties, or, as the size

of the school permitted, have appointed a full-time specially trained member of the staff to carry the duties of counseling. The terminology relating to the positions of those who are engaged in this work and to their duties is almost as varied as the schools creating them. The term *counselor* is loosely used. Investigations in this field show that some counselors are in reality doing work that is often thought of as that of the visiting teacher, or the psychologist, and still others are engaged in educational guidance almost to the exclusion of vocational guidance.

Counseling in its broadest sense may be thought of as an endeavor to help boys and girls make the educational, personal, and social adjustments within the school community that will best prepare them to effect desirable vocational, personal, and social adjustments when they become a more definite part of the larger community, in order that they may lead happy and useful lives and may contribute to the happiness and help meet the needs of others.

Some workers in this field insist that *vocational counseling* is too narrow a term for the process that often assists boys and girls in making a wide variety of adjustments, including those in the educational, social, moral, health, and vocational fields. Several attempts have been made to omit the word *vocational* from the name of the National Vocational Guidance Association, but the membership has consistently refused to make the change. As this association may be considered the professional organization of vocational counselors throughout the country, it may be assumed that the majority of this group of workers is in sympathy with the name by which they are now frequently called, *vocational counselors.*

Vocational counselors are also educational counselors, for it is usually impossible to help the boy or girl make a satisfactory plan for a future occupation without also considering school courses and electives which may be chosen to give the most adequate preparation for the future vocation. The same is true of social, health, and other personal problems, which the vocational counselor considers in the light of

the pupil's present educational and future vocational needs. Some vocational counselors attempt to handle a great variety of problems, because special assistance is not available; others, detecting a special health, emotional, or social problem, secure the assistance of the specialist best equipped to take care of the situation.

The term *vocational counseling,* therefore, may and often does include giving counsel in relation to all those problems that affect the life of the child while he is still within the school, so that he may be well equipped to meet his obligations in the life of the larger community. Among the most important of these later obligations will be his vocational responsibilities. Many of the other problems, unless they are of such proportions that they need the assistance of a specialist, may be related to the major problem of vocational planning.[1] The child, for example, who refuses to wear glasses may become much more willing to do so when he realizes the need for good eyesight in the vocation he later hopes to enter. Unwillingness to do satisfactory work in an important school subject, or undesirable habits, may also be discussed with the pupil and a change effected because he is helped to see their relation to his future usefulness and happiness as worker and citizen.

Vocational counseling, moreover, has to do not only with those pupils who may elect vocational courses; it is equally important for the child who has unusual artistic gifts, or the child who has special ability in academic subjects and may elect courses that will prepare him for college and so for one of the professions. The vocational counselor's province is to help all of these young people to discover their special interests and abilities, and in the light of these to assist them to make the most satisfactory educational and vocational plans, ever mindful of the value of a broad and flexible plan which may develop as the child's outlook grows and as he desires to broaden his choice in the future.

The term *vocational* in this section will be used in its

[1] The relation of vocational guidance to mental hygiene is discussed in the report on Mental Hygiene in Schools III C.

broadest relationships, applying to educational, personal, and social problems in relation to vocational problems of all kinds from those of the unskilled occupations to those of the learned profession.

Certain trends in vocational counseling in the public school systems are apparent from the investigations which form the basis for this study.

First, according to the replies received from public school officials, more importance is attached to individual counseling than to any other activity in present vocational guidance programs. Psychological testing is given second place and group counseling third. An analysis of the whole questionnaire, however, shows that more of the present programs actually include psychological testing and teaching of occupations than include counseling. In considering emphasis for the future, school administrators again give first place to individual counseling, with occupational studies, placement, and group counseling next in order.

In the second place, as the number of school systems initiating vocational counseling continues to grow, so naturally does the number of vocational counselors. At present counselors serving part time far outnumber those appointed on a full-time basis, and there is little or no uniformity in regard to name of position, duties, qualifications, or training.

In the third place, there is a growing emphasis on the need for special training for counselors, which may be expected to result in improved techniques. As evidence of this may be cited the increasing number of vocational guidance courses offered by many universities throughout the country, the standards set up by a few states and certain cities concerning the licensing of counselors, and the national committees at work on desirable training and standards.

In spite of this progress, we find great needs still to be met throughout the country, not only in cities where no system of counseling has yet been organized, but also in individual schools in cities where the counseling program includes only a relatively small proportion of pupils. Of the cities having counselors, the largest, where one might expect to

find the greatest need for counselors, are far less well supplied than are the medium-sized and smallest cities. This is true in spite of the fact that a greater proportion of the largest cities have vocational counselors. The percentage of counselors to total school population is less adequate in the large than in the two smaller groups of school systems.

The following report on counseling is based chiefly on the returns from 150 public-school systems which replied to questionnaires sent in 1930 to 288 school systems in all cities of 25,000 and over, and in states where there was no city as large as 25,000, to the largest city in the state.[1] Additional information was secured from a second investigation pertaining to the duties of vocational counselors, conducted by the American Association of Social Workers in 1928–1930. Data from this unpublished report were furnished by the investigator, John A. Fitch.

GENERAL STATUS OF COUNSELING

Number of Cities with Counseling Programs

Vocational counseling is carried on in 99 of the 150 public-school systems represented in the tabulated questionnaires. All but 2 of the largest cities (as grouped on page xv) and slightly more than half of the medium-sized and smallest cities employ vocational counselors. Table 2 gives this information in tabular form.

TABLE 2

EXTENT OF VOCATIONAL COUNSELING

Schools	Smallest cities	Medium-sized cities	Largest cities	All cities
With counselors	41	24	34	99
No counselors	31	18	2	51
Total	72	42	36	150

[1] *See* Foreword.

Number of Counselors

The number of cities that have counseling, of course, is no indication of the total number of counselors employed nor the amount of time they give to this part of the school program. Many of the cities have one counselor only, and some release teachers or administrators from other duties to spend part time in vocational counseling.

Only 77 of the 99 public-school systems with counseling programs gave definite information as to the number of counselors in their school systems. These 77 reported a total of 885 counselors. In 14, all counselors gave full time to the work; in 32, counselors gave only part time, performing other duties in addition to counseling, while in 31 school systems both full-time and part-time counselors were employed.

Of the 885 counselors, 246 were full time and 639 devoted only part of their time to counseling. It is in the largest school systems that the highest proportion of full-time counselors is to be found. The number of both full- and part-time counselors in the three groups of cities is noted in Table 3.

TABLE 3

NUMBER OF FULL- AND PART-TIME COUNSELORS

Counselors	Smallest cities	Medium-sized cities	Largest cities	All cities
Full-time	30	43	173	246
Part-time	156	169	314	639
Total	186	212	487	885

Note: Based on data from 77 public-school systems. Three others indicated part-time counselors, without stating number. One did not give number or state whether counselors were full or part time. Nineteen did not report.

Twenty-one school systems indicated that their counselors were specially trained people appointed exclusively for counseling; 33 that they were teachers assigned full time to counseling; and 74 that they were teachers assigned part time to counseling. A number stated that some of the counselors in their system belong to one group and some to another.

Time Given to Counseling

It is difficult to know how adequate is the supply of vocational counselors in a community, unless one knows the amount of time given by each worker to counseling. It might be assumed that a "full-time" counselor devotes all his time to counseling. Studies in this field, however, show that counselors may also have duties assigned to them, not closely related to their special field of work, which lessen the amount of time available for counseling.

The amount of time that the members of the group of part-time counselors, "teachers assigned part time," devote to counseling as reported by 57 school systems, varies from less than fifty periods per semester, which is approximately one-sixteenth of their time or two and one-half periods per week, to almost 500 periods per semester, that is, approximately five-eighths time or twenty-five periods per week. The median, based on a forty-week school year and a forty-period school week, is approximately one-fifth time.

Proportion of Counselors to Pupils

But these figures give no idea of the adequacy of the counseling program in a city. An attempt was made to estimate this for the 77 cities which reported the number of counselors employed, by comparing the number of counselors with the school population of counseling age.

The number of full-time counselors for each one of the three groups of cities was arrived at by using the median time per part-time counselor as a basis—in other words, counting five part-time counselors as the equivalent of one full-time counselor. Tables included later in this study indicate that counseling service is usually reserved for students in and above the seventh grade, that is, in the junior and senior high schools. As approximately one-third of the school population in the United States is found above the sixth grade, one-third of the school population of the cities studied has been used as a basis for computing the proportion of pupils to counselors.

According to this method of figuring, the group of smallest cities may be said to have one full-time counselor for every 1,595 pupils of counseling age; the medium-sized cities one for every 1,503 pupils; and the largest cities, one for every 3,340 pupils. These figures apply, of course, only to the 77 cities giving information concerning number of counselors, and they may be considered only as estimates. They do, however, indicate that it is the largest cities that have the greatest need for more counselors; and that the supply of counselors is not yet adequate in either group of smaller cities.

Some authorities in vocational guidance have estimated that at least one full-time counselor is necessary for every 500 pupils of counseling age. On this basis the smallest and the medium-sized cities studied are in need of three times as many counselors as they now have, and the largest cities should multiply their present number by seven.

The need for more counselors naturally varies greatly even among cities of the same population grouping. The following figures give some idea of the relative number of counselors to school population of counseling age—that is, pupils in the seventh to twelfth grades, or approximately one-third of the school population—in individual cities in the various groups:

In the group of largest cities:

Baltimore has one full-time counselor for every 1,100 pupils of counseling age; Chicago, one for every 5,000 pupils of counseling age; Cincinnati, one full-time counselor for every 2,700 pupils of counseling age; New York City, one for every 35,000; Providence, one for every 700.

In the group of medium-sized cities:

Allentown, Pennsylvania, has one full-time counselor for every 2,600 pupils of counseling age; Long Beach, California, one for every 500; and Niagara Falls, New York, one for every 600.

In the group of smallest cities:

Madison, Wisconsin, has one full-time counselor for every 1,100 pupils of counseling age; San Jose, California, one for every 1,200; and Superior, Wisconsin, one for every 2,200.

How Counselors Are Supervised

Ninety-six of the school systems gave information concerning the supervision of counselors (Table 4). Directors of guidance who supervised the counseling programs entirely or in part were reported in 49 cities, certain aspects of the work in many cases being supervised by the principal and others by the director. Principal supervision of various kinds was reported by 78 school systems and supervision by both director and principal by 35. Twenty of the systems stated that the vocational counselors were supervised by others, in some cases in addition to principal or director, among whom were included the superintendent and deputy superintendent of schools, supervisor of junior high schools, director of secondary education, and head of guidance. One school named the directors of research and character education, assisted by a national service club.

TABLE 4

SUPERVISION OF COUNSELORS

Source of supervision	Smallest cities	Medium-sized cities	Largest cities	All cities
Director and principal	9	7	19	35
Director only	7	0	1	8
Director and others	1	0	0	1
Director, principal, and others	3	0	2	5
Principal only	11	10	8	29
Principal and others	5	3	1	9
Others only	2	1	2	5
Not reported	2	2	0	4
No supervision	1	1 [a]	1 [a]	3
Total	41	24	34	99

[a] Counselor is also director of department.

The investigation made by the American Association of Social Workers showed that of 105 vocational counselors

included in the study, more than one-third were responsible to the principal, and another group of more than a third were responsible to the principal and one or more school officials.

The questionnaire study made for this report shows that the greatest number of directors of guidance are found in the largest cities, as might be expected. In several of these the directors are in charge of centrally organized vocational guidance bureaus, which seek to improve counseling procedure, to provide a fund of occupational information and other material of value to the counselor, and in general to coordinate and set standards for the vocational guidance activities of the community. Some of the vocational counselors are members of the staff of the central bureau, from which they are assigned to one or more schools, but oftener the counselors are members of the staff of the individual schools, and receive assistance from the central office or the director of guidance, if one exists.

The fact that counseling is a new field, still in the process of developing new and changing procedures, indicates the need for supervision by one especially trained in this field. Just as a director of other special subjects, such as art, commercial subjects, home economics, and manual arts, assists the teachers of these subjects, so the director of guidance proves of immeasurable value in helping vocational counselors develop better and uniform techniques and improved procedures based on a special study of that field.

Types of Schools with Counselors

Counseling programs are found chiefly in junior and senior high schools, although continuation schools, trade schools, and a few elementary and evening schools are offering some guidance service to their pupils. In the smaller and medium-sized cities the most common unit is the senior high school. In the largest cities, the emphasis is reversed and counseling is organized more often in junior than in senior high schools. The data are given in Table 5.

TABLE 5

TYPES OF SCHOOLS IN WHICH COUNSELING IS ORGANIZED [a]

Schools	Smallest cities	Medium-sized cities	Largest cities	All cities
Senior high [b]	36	15	26	77
Junior high	28	23	24	75
Continuation	17	10	16	43
Trade	9	6	12	27
Elementary	5	4	9	18
Evening	4	3	5	12

[a] A number of systems do counseling in more than one type of school. One system failed to give this information.
[b] Both three-year and four-year senior high schools are included.

The relatively slight emphasis on elementary schools is doubtless due to the growth of the junior high school movement which is changing the elementary unit to a six-grade organization. With the expansion of the programs of evening schools, including those for adult education, it is to be expected that public schools in the future will attempt to meet more adequately the important counseling need of this group.

Counseling with continuation school pupils is of help in assisting them to make the adjustments necessary in their new employment experiences and in relating these to school subjects. Trade or vocational school pupils also have important adjustments to make in a specialized type of school, which presents many unknown subjects that the pupil must be helped to understand in relation to himself and his future needs.

Grades in which Counseling Is Organized

Seventy-nine of the 99 public school systems included in the survey for this study make an attempt to confer with every child in a given grade or grades. All but 4 of these indicated on the questionnaires the specific grade or grades included in their counseling programs. Table 6 shows the grades in which counseling programs are given.

The greatest emphasis was shown to be on the ninth grade, with the eighth next in order of importance, followed by the seventh, twelfth, and tenth. The reason for the particular emphasis on the ninth grade may be found in the fact that it is a decisive point in both the 8–4 and the 6–3–3

TABLE 6

GRADES INCLUDED IN COUNSELING PROGRAMS [a]

Grades in which counseling is done	Smallest cities	Medium-sized cities	Largest cities	All cities
9th	22	9	15	46
8th	16	10	17	43
7th	13	7	16	36
12th	17	0	13	30
10th	17	3	9	29
11th	14	0	9	23
6th	5	0	1	6
High school	4	0	0	4
14th (Junior college)	0	0	1	1
13th (Junior college)	1	0	1	2
Junior high school	0	1	0	1
All above 6th	1	0	0	1
All grades	0	1	0	1

[a] Based on replies from 75 school systems. Four of the 99 systems did not specify grades. Twenty did not confer with all children in grade. Many reported more than one grade and the total numbers are greater than the number of school systems.

school organizations. The ninth grade junior high school pupil has many decisions to make concerning his educational and vocational plans. It is at the end of the ninth grade that he must select the school and course for the following year, and therefore is faced with many educational possibilities, each of which will prepare for a different vocational field. On the other hand, he may elect to enter employment, in which case he is again confronted with many bewildering choices. In systems organized on the 8–4 plan, the ninth grade is the first year of a four-year senior high school where the pupil enters a strange new environment and needs advice and assistance in making adjustments and in beginning to lay a foundation for his future.

The eighth grade may be emphasized because of the assistance needed by pupils in the last grade of an elementary school, who, like the junior high school 9A pupils, either must choose school and course for the next year or find their places in the working world, or it may be emphasized because it is the beginning of a differentiated program in junior high school.

The seventh grade of a junior high school is important not only as the first grade in a new school which must be interpreted to the child and related to his needs, but also

because at the end of this grade the pupil may be required to select the course which he will follow for the next two years. The twelfth grade affords the counselor the last opportunity to help those pupils who are finishing their formal education and who may be in need of definite vocational advice. This is also true of the end of any special vocational course. In the tenth and eleventh grades occurs the final opportunity to make adjustments of subjects needed for graduation or for college entrance: in these grades also many children will be leaving school, at the minimum working age.

One school reported counseling in "all grades above the sixth" and another in "all grades." The inadequate number of counselors in most school systems indicates that these reports may be a result of a misunderstanding of the question. These replies may have referred to group conferences or to occupations classes rather than to individual counseling.

If only certain grades are to be selected for counseling it is generally felt that the seventh, eighth, and ninth are the most important. In this group occur most of the choices of new schools and courses and the need for adjustment to new types of school organizations, whether the systems be based on the 8–4 or the 6–3–3 plan. In these grades also may be found a large proportion of those children who leave school at the minimum age for work, and are therefore in need of special counsel on their vocational plans.

Counseling for Special Types

A number of the school systems doing counseling reserve this service for pupils who are having trouble in adjusting to their school work. Others offer this special service for unadjusted pupils in all grades, in addition to serving all of the pupils in selected grades.[1]

Others likely to be designated for special counsel are the children who are leaving school to go to work. Thirty-one school systems have established the policy of sending such

[1] Vocational guidance of the unadjusted child is discussed in the report on Mental Hygiene in Schools III C.

children to a central counseling bureau for advice and help if there is no counselor in the school which they have been attending.

DUTIES OF COUNSELORS

The work carried on by the counselors varies from city to city and even from school to school within a city. The duties are naturally much influenced by the type of school in which the counselor is located, as the problems to be met in the senior high school differ from those in the junior high school and these, in turn, differ from problems of the elementary school. The problems to be faced in the continuation, trade, and evening schools differ from those in the elementary and high schools, and also from one another.

According to the survey made for this study the counselors' chief duties include one or more of the following: vocational counseling—individual, or group, or both; the teaching of classes in occupations; occupational research.

Table 7 shows the various combinations of these duties reported by the ninety-nine school systems. These may not

TABLE 7

DUTIES OF COUNSELORS IN VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE

As reported in questionnaire study for White House Conference

Duties of counselors	Smallest cities	Medium-sized cities	Largest cities	All cities
Counseling only	15	10	13	38
Counseling and teaching classes in occupations	6	4	5	15
Counseling and making occupational studies	11	7	3	21
Counseling, teaching classes in occupations, and making occupational studies	9	3	13	25
Total school systems	41	24	34	99

apply to every counselor even in one city, but are reported as the general practice in the school organization.

These figures indicate that in slightly more than one-third of the school systems, counseling is the only one of

these activities in which the counselors engage. In less than one-sixth of the school systems classes in occupations are included as the counselor's second duty; in another group comprising less than one-fourth of the school systems, occupational studies constitute the second duty; while in still another group, composed of one-fourth of the school systems, both classes in occupations and the preparation of occupational studies are added to the counseling duties.

In addition to these major activities, counselors may be assigned a large number of miscellaneous duties, such as ability grouping and psychological testing, programming, work with special types of pupils, the keeping of personnel records, and so forth. A better understanding of the wide variety of activities carried on by counselors may be had from the list compiled in 1928 to 1930 by the American Association of Social Workers (Table 8). All but one of the 105 counselors included in the study reported more than one of these activities. The number of duties per counselor ranged from one to twelve, with the greatest number of counselors naming three or four.

Most of the duties listed in Table 8 are closely related to educational and vocational counseling. Counseling is reported by far the greatest number of times. Moral, social, and health guidance mentioned by a few are doubtless included by others under educational and vocational counseling activities.

Individual Interview and Group Conference

The first duty of the counselor is, of course, to give educational and vocational guidance to young people in need of such help. In some schools this is done in individual interviews; in others, where the school population is large and the number of counselors small, it may be carried on in groups. Still other school systems combine the two, holding group conferences and later inviting any who appear to have special problems to return for a private interview.

TABLE 8

PRINCIPAL DUTIES OF COUNSELORS AS LISTED IN THE STUDY MADE BY THE AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF SOCIAL WORKERS [a]

Duties	Number of counselors reporting
Administrative duties	13
Case work and recording case histories	3
Classifying pupils in ability groups	4
Clerical work	10
Conferences and interviews with	
Teachers	6
Parents	9
Pupils	8
Drop-outs	7
Cooperating with welfare agencies	2
Coordinating	3
Counseling and guidance	
Undifferentiated	30
Educational	34
Vocational	27
Moral	4
Social	7
Health	2
Supervision of	9
Dealing with	
Discipline Cases	4
Handicapped pupils	2
Health problems	2
Failures	
Adjusting	1
Investigating causes of	1
Interviewing	12
Follow-up of	3
Follow-up	5
Occupational information	
Collecting	9
Disseminating	6
Teaching classes in	22
Supervising classes	5
Placement in jobs	20
Placement in classes	5
Program planning	27
Programing pupils	6
Record keeping	10
Research	4
Scholarships	
Activities in connection with	9
Supervision of	
Student activities	7
Other	3
Teaching	30
Testing	20
Tests, supervising	4
Tests, recording and interpreting	2
Transfer of pupils	4
Visiting	
Homes	7
Plants	3

[a] From unpublished study of Vocational Guidance made by John A. Fitch under the auspices of the American Association of Social Workers.

Teaching Classes in Occupations

Thirty-two of the 105 counselors included in the study made by the American Association of Social Workers were teaching occupations classes as one of their counseling duties. This combination of teaching and counseling is thought by many to contribute to the effectiveness of the guidance program in that the time spent in class preparation increases the counselor's knowledge of occupations, and the classroom contacts help the counselor to understand the individual children who later come to him for guidance. The pupil, when he confers with the counselor individually, comes to talk with some one he has known in the classroom and not with a stranger. Moreover, the fact that the counselor already knows what background of information the child has, saves time and effort in the working out of satisfactory plans for his future.

Occupational Research

In 46, or nearly one-half, of the cities included in this study, counselors participate in the making of the occupational studies which are the basis of effective counseling. This is done in the belief that a knowledge of occupations can best be gained through personal visits to places of employment and interviews with the representatives of business, industry, and the professions. It is believed also that such knowledge should not be acquired by counselors at one period only, since occupational problems are subject to change. The counselor must have an opportunity for continuous contact with the working world if he is to be equipped to give practical advice to pupils who are making their educational and vocational plans.

Fourteen of the public-school systems publish occupational studies. In the study made by the American Association of Social Workers, comparatively few among the 105 counselors list duties that may be interpreted as securing occupational information from first-hand sources. Collecting information, named by 9 counselors, and visiting plants, by

3, are the only duties that may be so classified. Placement in jobs, recorded by 20, and follow-up, by 5, may add to the opportunities for securing first-hand occupational information.

Additional data concerning the study of occupations are given in the answers to a separate question on this subject. Of the 105 counselors, 47 replied that they made plant visits; an additional 19 did so occasionally; 4 others did so but not systematically; and 33 definitely did not, while 2 did not answer the question. According to the specific question on this subject, therefore, a far greater number of counselors make plant visits than might be inferred from the list of principal duties recorded by counselors, unless, as previously suggested, visits in connection with placement and follow-up of those at work are included.

Psychological Testing and Ability Grouping

In 29 cities, counselors include as one of their duties the giving of psychological tests. In others, the counselors call upon trained psychologists for this service. Doubtless, less testing is done by counselors in the larger school systems where the services of trained psychologists are available.

But regardless of where and by whom the tests are given, the results are used by the counselor in the guidance of the individual child. In schools where an attempt is made to group pupils according to intelligence levels, the counselor may also be assigned the duty of classifying the children for this purpose.

Special Case Work

Intensive work with individuals, sometimes termed case work, is one of the important duties of a number of counselors.

Such work may be pedagogical or social. Both types involve case work technique in diagnosing and handling individual problems, and close cooperation with educational and welfare agencies in the community. Only 3 of the 105 counselors included in the study made by the American Associa-

tion of Social Workers reported "case work and recording case histories" as a principal duty; but 92 of them indicated contact with social agencies, qualified in 77 cases by "some" or "very little." Only 10 reported no such contacts. Three did not reply to this question.

Many adjustments and plans to be made for the pupil require the understanding and cooperation of parents. Among the principal duties named by the counselors, conferences with parents are reported by 9 and visits to homes by 7. That practically all counselors recognize the need for cooperation with parents is evidenced by the results from answers to a special question: "Do you interview parents?" Ninety of the counselors replied "yes" to this question, while 12 others qualified their affirmative reply by "occasionally." Only 3 of the entire group of the 105 counselors stated definitely that they did not interview parents.

Special case work is carried on by counselors for four principal types of individuals: failing pupils, children withdrawing from school, boys and girls exhibiting personality problems, or those in need of medical service or social adjustment.

Many counselors do special work with *failing pupils.* This includes interviewing the child, and often his parents also, as to the cause of failure, and assisting him to make better educational adjustments, by discovering and removing special handicaps that are preventing good study habits, by improving methods of study, prescribing remedial work, or possibly by changing the child's course to include subjects which will more adequately suit his abilities and interests.

It is surprising that only 7 counselors refer specifically to interviewing *withdrawals,* as a principal duty, although this may have been included under the heading of vocational guidance and placement. An interview is important at the time of withdrawal to discover whether, in view of the child's abilities and future plans, school-leaving is necessary or desirable. It may be possible to change the attitude of parents or child, or to secure financial aid for pupils where there is economic need, and where it seems advisable for the child to

remain longer in school. It is at this point also that those pupils for whom withdrawal from school seems a wise plan are given definite information about employment possibilities and opportunities for additional training in night school, and in other ways have the service that every school which believes its function is to equip pupils for satisfactory adjustment in the community, naturally wishes to make available.

The term *problem children* is commonly applied to those boys and girls who exhibit maladjustments so extreme as to prevent normal participation in the activities of their group. These maladjusments may be the result of precociousness or of retarded mentality, of social misunderstanding, of domestic discord, or of physical neglect. They require individual study of the most painstaking and skilful character on the part of the counselor, and in most cases cooperation with social and remedial agencies as well as the fullest use of various special school departments.

Counselors also frequently discover or have referred to them children whose normal progress or attitude is disturbed by correctible defects, or by poverty or some other unfortunate home condition. The counselor, with his understanding and experience, and the aid of all the medical and social facilities of the community, endeavors to correct these conditions.

Program Planning

Program planning naturally assumes an important place among the counselor's duties. In some schools the counselor interviews all entrants and assists them in working out a plan for the future and selecting the school courses that will best fit that plan. In other systems the only programing done by the counselor is done for particular individuals, such as failing students or those who for some reason need special program adjustments.

Personnel Record Keeping

Some counselors list record keeping as an important duty. Much of the value of counseling may depend upon the rec-

ords which the counselor has kept of the pupil's family and home situation; school grades past and current, mental ratings and estimates of teachers, as well as the record, made after the conference with the child, of points of the discussion that have a bearing on the child's problems and his plans for the future.

There are several types of records kept by counselors. The more detailed and comprehensive ones, similar to those of the trained case worker, note chronologically the results of conferences and events, and make available in systematic form all related information concerning the child. On the other hand, some counselors use a simpler system of card form with spaces for checking and writing in a few words after the various items. Still others keep no records but trust to their memories or informal notes to recall the many facts that must be kept in mind about each child. The importance of record keeping is not further emphasized here because it has already been discussed in the section on *The Study of the Individual.*

The keeping of adequate records is greatly facilitated in those schools where clerical assistance is provided for the counselors, and the counselors in this way are also able to carry a heavier program. Sixty-three of the 105 counselors indicate that they have clerical assistance, but in the case of 20, such assistance is provided by students, and 9 qualify their answer by "little." Much of the record keeping, however, except that of the more routine type, can be done by the counselor only.

METHODS OF COUNSELING

Two general methods of counseling are in use—that of the group and that of the individual conference. A few school systems have developed a special technique for group counseling and have emphasized this in preference to individual counseling. In far the largest number of schools, however, counselors confer with pupils individually. The two methods are sometimes combined. The individual conference

method may be supplemented by a conference for a homogeneous group, whose members are interested in the same questions and have somewhat the same ability. The group conference method may also be supplemented by the individual conference, when a pupil in the group is found to be in special need of individual assistance.

Group and individual conferences have in some cases been a part of class work in occupations, where the counselor, as the teacher of the class, confers with an individual pupil or with a small group at his desk while other class members are engaged in a special assignment.

Counseling through the small homogeneous group conference enables the counselor to discuss with the group certain problems which will be helpful to each of them. This method may or may not save time, depending much upon the skill of the counselor and the success with which the group has been selected. Many counselors believe that the difficult personal or family problems which are often the key to the child's plans, are not usually discovered through the group conference but are more readily disclosed when the pupil meets alone with the counselor.

The counselor may or may not be acquainted with the pupil who comes for counsel, but it is customary to secure as complete a record as possible concerning the pupil before conferring with him. A common practice is for the counselor to prepare a conference schedule in advance and, if possible, to secure from the teachers the record and status of each child who is to be interviewed.

It is often impossible to use study periods exclusively for vocational counseling, but conflicts with subjects of especial importance to the pupil can be avoided if the schedule is carefully planned. Many principals believe that the time spent in conference, which may result in a more satisfactory school adjustment for the pupil, is more important for his and the school's future than the pupil's loss in missing one class period.

Counseling service in many schools is handicapped by the noisy, crowded places in which it is necessary to hold indi-

vidual conferences. The best results can be expected only when there is an opportunity for the pupil to talk quietly and uninterruptedly with the counselor. Only 81 of the 105 counselors reported by the American Association of Social Workers indicated that they had a separate office with privacy for interviewing. The value of the individual conference method is stressed by many counselors. They urge that the pupil be encouraged to take an important part in the discussion; that the counselor's rôle be that of the sympathetic and intelligent friend who draws out the child and encourages him to talk of his own interests, problems, and ambitions. The counselor must at all times recognize that though the child needs his sympathetic understanding and helpful advice, the conference has failed if it does not help him to realize that it is he who must work out his own plans.

The counselor gives information to the child as it is needed, helps him to secure valuable experience, assists him to interpret the information and experiences and to discover his own interests and abilities.

At the conference, he informs the pupil concerning opportunities and special courses of training in the vocation in which he is interested, or in which his abilities lead the counselor to believe that he may become interested. Much information is, of course, given by means of the class in occupations, but this must be supplemented in conference. Every effort is made to help the pupil realize the advantages of a broad and flexible plan which will grow with his future interests. The promising pupil, faced with the prospect of leaving school, is helped to secure funds necessary for the continuance of his education; those who have developed bad study habits are encouraged to greater effort; and others are helped to make plans commensurate with their abilities. The child with mechanical rather than academic skill is helped to choose the subjects suitable for him. The counselor refers the child for whom employment seems the best plan, to the placement office; if a placement office is not available, he tells him of employment opportunities, or may even find a job for him.

Special family or personal problems are often discovered that must be worked out if the pupil is to have a chance to develop his plans. The counselor, therefore, often confers with parents, and occasionally makes home visits as these seem necessary. Interviews with parents, through the counselor's visits to their homes or the parents' visits to the school, are not the counselor's only method of gaining the interest and cooperation of the parents. In a number of school systems, special letters are sent to all parents to keep them in touch with the problems that the counselor and pupil are discussing in conference and to ask that the parents and child together talk over these questions at home. Sometimes the counselor finds it necessary to call in specialists from such fields as family case work, recreation, psychology, psychiatry, medicine, as their special service may be needed.

Certain pupils must be seen many times; with others, one conference may suffice. The number of the conferences will depend somewhat on the pupil load of the counselor. In some schools an attempt is made to see all pupils in certain grades; in others, records are secured for all pupils in certain grades but only those whose records indicate a special need are called for conference. Counselors who have used this and other selective processes to determine which pupils shall be counseled, feel that often pupils greatly in need of help are neglected by such selection because theirs was a problem which was not apparent from merely studying the written record.

The length of the conference depends upon the number of pupils that are to be seen and the amount of time that the counselor can devote to counseling. It depends also upon whether or not the counseling program emphasizes thorough procedures and fundamental problems, or whether it emphasizes more hasty procedures necessary to meet immediate problems. The conference time may vary from a few minutes to a complete period of forty-five minutes or more. Many counselors emphasize the importance of not allowing the child to feel that the conference is being hurried; at the

same time the counselor must be on the alert to bring out the most important points of the discussion and so utilize every moment effectively. The counselor needs also to be able to judge when the conference may be shortened without loss to the child, and when more time must be allowed.

Often in special cases several conferences are necessary. Some counseling programs call for two conferences a year for every child within a certain grade. The second conference is of special value when the pupil has not been seen in an earlier grade and will not be conferred with again by the counselor, and when important questions must be discussed and decisions reached before the end of the school year. At all times the counselor must determine which pupils are in need of thorough and intensive service and which have problems that may be worked out in a shorter period of time.

All methods employed by the counselor should constantly promote the purpose of vocational guidance, which is never to force a plan upon the child but to give him such counsel as he may need—counsel which will assist him in developing a method of thinking that will enable him to work out his own problems, not only of the present but of future years when guidance may not be readily available. Indeed, the importance of training the pupil to analyze his own problems and to make his decisions in the light of this information cannot be too strongly emphasized.

QUALIFICATIONS OF COUNSELORS

Twenty-one school systems reported that their counselors are on special license or certificate, instead of the regular teaching certificate. This fact implies a special standard of qualifications and training which would fit them for the counseling service. The following discussion of qualifications is based on the study of 105 counselors made by the American Association of Social Workers, combined with a report of a committee which is working on the whole question of standards for training counselors.

General Education

The general educational preparation of the 105 counselors included in the study is as follows:

Attended normal school	2
Normal school graduate	3
Attended college	16
Bachelor's degree	54
Master's degree	28
Doctor's degree	2

Many of these who were college graduates, and many who had advanced degrees, were still taking additional courses in summer sessions, late afternoon and Saturday classes and, in a few cases, correspondence courses. Some of the non-college graduates were also continuing to study. The subject matter of these courses seemed for the most part to be chosen to meet the definite needs of the worker on the job rather than to satisfy certain course requirements.

Certain specific fields of study are, of course, of greater value than others in providing a background and special technique for the duties pertaining to counseling. Among the most valuable are psychology, sociology, economics, with special emphasis upon labor problems, and vocational guidance. The number of counselors who had taken one or more courses in the various fields is:

Psychology	103
Sociology	94
Vocational guidance	90
Economics (other than labor problems)	79
Labor problems	40

An idea of the breadth of training of these counselors is given by the number of fields in which each counselor had done some work. Thirty-five of the 105 counselors had taken subjects in all 5 fields, 31 had studied in 4 fields, and 25 in 3. Only 4 reported having had no work in any of these fields of study.

Psychology is important because it gives knowledge concerning the child's mental and emotional make-up. Sociology contributes to the understanding of the child in relation to his social environment and often includes special courses relating to the family, poverty, and social-case-work technique. Economics gives familiarity with the underlying principles of the business world and its problems, and the study of labor problems helps in understanding the special phase of economics that applies to the employee in his relation to his employer and the public. Vocational guidance courses are needed to acquaint the counselor with the principles, problems, methods, and special technique of his profession.

Professional Training

Professional courses for training vocational counselors and for supplementing the training of those now in service are to be found in many of the large universities. The courses offered by these institutions in the vocational guidance field alone number as many as six and are usually of graduate standing. In addition special courses in the allied fields of education, economics, including labor problems, sociology, social work, and psychology are usually recommended.

A committee to develop desirable programs of training for counselors has been at work for several years and the final report, submitted in 1931, is included in Appendix C. The counselor's special equipment must be knowledge and understanding both of occupations and of children, and this equipment the special training courses assist in providing.

Field Work

Many persons emphasize the importance of field work as a special feature of the various courses valuable as training for the counselor. Vocational guidance courses should offer the prospective counselor an opportunity to visit industrial establishments, interview workers and employers in various occupations, prepare the findings of such investigations or interviews for use, and become familiar with the

best standards of occupational research. It should also bring him into contact with school problems and with the technique used in planning vocational counseling programs, and provide experience in teaching classes in occupations, in holding vocational conferences with individual pupils, and in keeping records. Field work in connection with courses in applied sociology or social service should give the student an opportunity to become familiar with the best technique in family case work, including the preparing of social histories and the keeping of case records, as well as methods of diagnosing and treating the social ills.

Personal Qualifications

Training alone is not sufficient, for with the tools which training provides the counselor must combine sympathy and intelligence and those characteristics which enable him to work happily with people, especially young people.

In the New York State requirements for certification of counselors, personality, maturity, and background of experience are emphasized, in addition to definite subject requirements. The following quotations are taken from a tentative statement of the new requirements for counselors in New York,[1] one of the few states that have established definite standards for certification:

> *Personality.* The counselor needs to have: a personality which will gain and maintain the respect and confidence of young people; the ability to work with fellow teachers and to meet employers and others with whom he must make contacts outside the school. . . . Since the counselor must work in close harmony with all other teachers on the faculty he must be able to maintain cordial relations and a cooperative attitude. The success of the guidance program within a given school unit will be determined by the coordination of the activities of all concerned. In all contacts with employers and others outside the school the counselor must create a feeling of good will and understanding. In this way the counselor can secure for pupils the consideration deserved.

[1] Appendix C, p. 328.

Maturity. The exercise of good judgment is conditioned largely by a varied and extended experience. This may be expected from mature persons. Valuable as maturity is, counselors should not be appointed who are not physically active and who have advanced to an age when a sympathetic attitude toward the problems of young people has been lost. It does not seem probable that the desirable qualities will be possessed by persons under twenty-five or over forty years of age.

Experience. The range of occupational experience is so great that no person may have all the desirable kinds. Since the greater number of our young people leave school at an early age and enter factory and commercial occupations, experience in these occupations will be valuable. Other experience directly related to guidance problems is: social case work; visiting teacher service; participation in local surveys, and report writing under direction; administrative work in the school grades in which the person expects to work; personnel work in large industrial or commercial establishments.

COUNSELING PROGRAMS

The counselor, in accordance with policies which the principal and supervisor have had a part in forming, is naturally looked upon as the one who is chiefly responsible for planning and carrying out the details of the counseling program. The success of the plans, however, will rest largely upon the extent of the cooperation that the counselor is able to secure from teachers and other members of the school staff. The most effective results can be obtained only when all of the teachers and school officials understand and feel the importance of counseling and desire to work in sympathy with the ideals and aims of the counseling program.

In developing a counseling program a number of questions arise. Shall a large area be chosen if only a few workers are available, or shall the area be restricted that a more thorough piece of work may be done? Shall the program be limited so that only special types of cases, special grades, or special ages are included, or shall all cases in the school needing help come within the counseling program regardless of age or grade? What shall be the counselor's relation to other workers in the school, such as the dean of girls, the

visiting teacher, the attendance officer, and the psychologist? If such workers are not available, shall the counselor assume certain of their duties? To what extent shall the counselor attempt to secure the assistance of other agencies in the community that may make valuable contributions?

The ways in which such cities as Atlanta, Boston, Chicago, Cincinnati, Minneapolis, New York, Oakland, Pittsburgh, Providence, and Seattle have answered these questions and have developed their counseling programs are given in detail in a separate report of the White House Conference series.[1]

In none of the cities already referred to, nor in those sending other material for the basis of this report, has counseling been developed to the full extent that it is needed. However, counseling in these cities and elsewhere through the United States is growing to meet the needs created by our complex school and industrial organizations. Counseling continues to commend itself to school officials and citizens because it is doing much to reduce the financial costs of failures in our schools, as well as the human costs, and is proving one of the most effective agencies toward helping the schools meet their responsibilities in preparing useful and happy citizens for the future. Counseling has become a permanent and necessary function in effective and progressive school administration.

RECOMMENDATIONS

1. Counseling procedures should be established in all school systems, in order to reduce the human and financial losses that result from failure of individual children to adjust to the school curriculum, and also to assist pupils to make the educational adjustments which will equip them for a vocation in harmony with their abilities and interests.

2. Counseling should be made available to all pupils in those grades in elementary and secondary schools where educational choices and vocational information are important; it

[1] Vocational Guidance in Twelve Selected Cities III D.

should serve pupils of varying abilities and ambitions, from the most gifted to the most retarded child, and both adjusted and maladjusted pupils.

3. The counselor, if not allowed full time for counseling and related activities, should be given the necessary freedom from subject teaching and other duties to conduct an effective counseling program. The pupil load should be limited to that number which makes possible well-organized counseling plans and thorough procedures.

4. The counselors' functions should emphasize:

Individual counseling and individual case study which recognize individual differences and needs, and are supplemented where necessary by group counseling. This counseling should involve the closest cooperation with the various school departments, with parents, and with the social agencies of the community.

Handling fundamental rather than superficial problems, utilizing the services of other specialists where necessary.

Assisting the child to find, develop, and carry out a program that shall reflect his own choice and his own method of thinking and be broad and flexible enough to meet his needs in later years.

Continued study of occupations, which will bring the counselor into first-hand contact with occupational problems, from those of the least skilled occupations to those of the professions.

Teaching a few classes in occupations, or otherwise becoming acquainted with pupils prior to individual counseling.

5. Adequate supervision and methods for coordinating the activities of counselors within a community and for improving techniques should be established.

6. An effort should be made to standardize the terms relating to counseling and thus make possible a more satisfactory method of studying and comparing procedures in various school systems.

7. Counselors should be chosen because of their special

personal qualifications, experience, and training, which should include college training in economics, education, psychology, sociology, and vocational guidance, with related field work, and practical experience in as many as possible of the following: business, industry, personnel work, social case work and industrial or social research, and teaching.

SCHOLARSHIPS FOR CHILDREN

SCHOLARSHIPS FOR CHILDREN

HISTORY AND DEVELOPMENT

SCHOLARSHIPS for school children are the result of an effort to give children a square deal. Though the public schools are free, all children are not free to enjoy them. Scholarships are an attempt to assure to children that equality of opportunity for which our public schools stand.

The development of scholarship work has been almost simultaneous with that of child labor and compulsory school attendance legislation, and the vocational guidance movement.

In different parts of the country, with the raising of age and grade requirements for children entering employment came the problem of the child forbidden by law to work and obliged to continue in school when the family felt itself unable to bear the expense. The pioneer attempt to meet this situation was made in Chicago in 1903, when a fund was raised by the Illinois Child Labor Committee to assist through school, by a small grant of money known as a scholarship award, any child upon whose family the child labor law might work a hardship. Similar schemes were adopted in other cities where organizations such as child labor committees and consumers' leagues, which had been instrumental in securing the advanced legislation, began raising funds to replace the small earnings which the child might have contributed under the old law to the family income. The term *scholarship* was generally used to designate this type of assistance.

Gradually, social agencies began to recognize their responsibility for seeing that families with whom they were dealing sent their children of school age regularly to school,

granting adequate relief when the family could not support itself. This made scholarships for children under working age unnecessary.

In the meantime, at the very beginning of the vocational guidance movement, the vocational counselor was confronted with the problem of keeping in school boys and girls in need of further education, who from necessity were obliged to go to work as soon as the child labor law permitted. At the instigation of vocational guidance bureaus, scholarship committees were formed to raise scholarship funds to keep children in school beyond the compulsory school age.

The first scholarship committee of this kind was organized in *New York City* in 1908 with the establishment of the scholarship committee of the Henry Street Settlement and the Alliance Employment Bureau. These later became the Vocational Service for Juniors, which has been concerned with counseling in the school, scholarship selection and administration, and placement on investigated jobs. The Vocational Service for Juniors is a private organization. In 1929–1930 it carried 204 different cases on scholarship.

Shortly after scholarship work in New York had got under way, scholarship offices sprang up in many sections of the country. In Chicago the work began in 1913, two years after the initiation of vocational guidance work in that city and five years after the beginning of guidance in Boston. From a very small start the *Chicago* scholarship organizations, the Vocational Supervision League [1] and the Scholarship Association for Jewish Children, have grown so that at the present time in their combined work they probably handle more children than any other city in the country. During the year 1929–1930 they carried 282 scholarship cases. These two organizations have free space in the rooms occupied by the Vocational Guidance Bureau in the Board of Education building. Both cooperate to the utmost with the Vocational Guidance Bureau in all its plans and efforts. The funds for scholarships and for all administrative expenses of

[1] Name changed in March, 1931, to Children's Scholarship League.

both organizations are secured through private contribution.[1]

Scholarship work was started in *Cincinnati* in 1916. Early in the experience of the Vocation Bureau it was found that there were always boys and girls of superior qualifications who, for lack of money, must leave school and go to work. A scholarship committee was formed to raise funds to keep them in school, and at first all money was secured privately. During the World War, the Women's Council of National Defense and the Red Cross contributed to this fund. After the war, and since January, 1920, the main portion of the money has come from the community chest. In addition, many organizations have contributed generously, notably the Council of Jewish Women, which almost from the start has furnished scholarships through this committee, and the Ruth Lodge. Also there have been frequent contributions from individuals.

The present scholarship committee consists of twelve members, and is made up of the student advisers of the Cincinnati high schools, representatives of a few allied organizations, and members at large.

Four points must be considered in selecting candidates for scholarships: financial need, academic record, personal qualities, and rating according to psychological tests.

In 1930, seventy-two scholarships were granted.

In *Philadelphia* scholarship work has been developed under the White-Williams Foundation, which granted its first scholarship in 1917, "raising money to keep one girl in school as a case work measure." This work has grown steadily though very gradually since that time. In 1929–1930, $26,936.50 was expended in weekly scholarships of $2.50 to $5.00 each, given to 237 boys and girls. The organization has taken effective part in the development of uniform standards of selection of applicants and administration of funds. The office is now one of the largest in the country, with recognized leadership in the small group of such agencies.

[1] "Scholarships for Children of Working Age." University of Chicago, *Social Service Monograph* No. 7, 1929.

In *Rochester,* New York, the Children's Memorial Scholarship Fund was organized in 1919, as a memorial to the public school boys who gave their lives in the World War. Each school makes a yearly pledge and additional money is received from individual subscribers. For five years the fund was the beneficiary of a Christmas campaign of a local newspaper. This campaign was discontinued several years ago.

The scholarship fund is administered by a board of nine directors elected from the incorporate body, the majority of whom are school people. It is partially supported by the board of education, which pays a counselor for full time, provides office space, equipment, and some stenographic service. The fund provided scholarships for 86 different children, spending $7,488.01 during the year 1929-1930. At the close of the semester ending January, 1931, it had, since its origin, granted 391 scholarships, spending $70,647.49.

In *Providence* the first scholarships were awarded in 1922. The Department of Research and Guidance of the Providence Public Schools sought to interest a number of business men in a few promising pupils who were leaving school because their families needed their help. These men raised a small fund, the income from which is used for scholarships. In addition, the Rhode Island Foundation grants a small sum yearly for the same purpose. The department of research and guidance receives recommendations for "needy pupils" from social workers and teachers, and makes the necessary investigations. It also ascertains from the foundation committee how much money is available for scholarships and recommends that scholarships be granted to those pupils who are most in need of assistance up to the limits of the fund. Thus, the scholarship money is actually voted by a body of private citizens, but the cases and the recommendations are reviewed by the school department.

Three years ago the parent-teacher association became interested in scholarship work and since that time has raised a considerable amount of money for the capital fund, the income from which goes to scholarship work. Here we have

another example, though on a small scale, of the public administration of scholarship funds. Twenty-six different children were holding scholarships at some time during the year 1929-1930.

In *New Orleans* the first step toward organized scholarship work was the establishment of the High School Scholarship Association in 1923. Before that parent-teacher and other organizations of women had for several years given financial assistance to capable pupils. Representatives of these organizations met at the call of the placement secretary of the Orleans Parish School Board and on her recommendation the High School Scholarship Association was organized to make financial assistance available to girls, as the New Orleans Rotary Club was considering the formation of a loan fund for the assistance of boys. Investigation and follow-up of both boys and girls is carried on by the visiting counselor of the high school scholarship association, only the funds being administered separately. The sources of revenue of the association are the community chest, the city of New Orleans, a small endowment fund, school clubs, and interested individuals and organizations.

The association places its greatest stress on the counseling and supervision of the young people as an important factor of its work, feeling that the financial assistance is of secondary importance. School grades, medical examination, intelligence tests, and a careful case summary form the basis for awarding a scholarship. After graduation the beneficiaries are placed in positions or arrangements are made for continuing their education or training. A recent follow-up to determine the relation of course of study to present employment showed that out of the 64 girls and 28 boys graduated since the beginning of the association, only 4 girls and 2 boys were unemployed. At present there are 57 girls and 23 boys enrolled in the various high schools of New Orleans who are receiving assistance from the High School Scholarship Association and the Rotary Club Loan Fund.

Two other well organized scholarship committees have been functioning for a number of years, one in *Minneapolis*

and one in *San Francisco*—the one in Minneapolis in cooperation with the Department of Attendance and Guidance. It secures its funds from the Congress of Parents and Teachers and from local associations.

EXTENT OF SCHOLARSHIP WORK

Innumerable other organizations are in process of development, and there is an increasing number of individual public schools in the country that have scholarship funds to assist their pupils. Many social agencies also dispense scholarships to children.

Returns from the 150 school systems replying to the questionnaire [1] showed that 80 were administering scholarship funds. The funds are administered in 38 cities by individual schools, in 29 cities through a central school office, and in other cities by private agencies. In 23 cities the scholarships are given in the form of loans but in 35 they are given as gifts and in 22 as both gifts and loans. Thirty-six school systems replied that their scholarship work is financed through a special endowment fund, and 44 state that their funds came from a variety of sources such as community chests, individual schools, parent-teacher associations, student councils, trust funds, clubs, school alumni, individuals, and so forth.

Scholarships are granted primarily to pupils in high school, though replies from the questionnaires indicate that a few are granted to pupils in elementary schools and a few to those in trade schools.

Of the 80 school systems administering scholarship funds, 45 are granting scholarships to less than 20 children each annually, while 5 cities are granting as many as 100 to 300 scholarships each year.

Thirty-three of the 80 cities report an expenditure of less than $2,000 a year in scholarships; 11 cities, $2,000 to $10,000 each year; 5 report $10,000 to $25,000 each year, while 2 report granting $25,000 to $50,000 annually.

[1] See Foreword.

PRESENT PRACTICES

Though scholarship work is not extensive, it has developed in the past ten years, and in an increasing number of cities it is becoming well organized and standardized. Certain policies and procedures have been worked out that are generally accepted by those engaged in scholarship work.

They agree that scholarship work "uses a knowledge of educational theory and practice, as well as of industrial theory and situations, combined with the technique of case work, for the purpose of keeping in school all children who could profit by further schooling and who would otherwise, because of financial need, have to work." [1] A scholarship is not charity and should not be looked upon as such. It is an investment which increases in value as the boy or girl reaches adult age and becomes a trained worker and a more useful member of society. While at present scholarship work reaches primarily the bright or superior children it ultimately aims to keep in school all children who could profit by further available education.

Training of Scholarship Counselor

The scholarship committees that are doing the best work engage counselors who have training in social case work, a knowledge of mental hygiene, and an understanding of vocational guidance and employment problems, since the scholarship counselor is called upon to deal with every phase of the lives of the boys and girls who come to see her. It is only, however, in a few cities that scholarship work is carried on by trained counselors.

Scholarship Committees

In most cities scholarship funds are raised by committees known as scholarship committees, working independently or in close cooperation with the schools. In general these

[1] *Scholarships for Children of Working Age,* Social Service Monograph No. 7, University of Chicago, 1929.

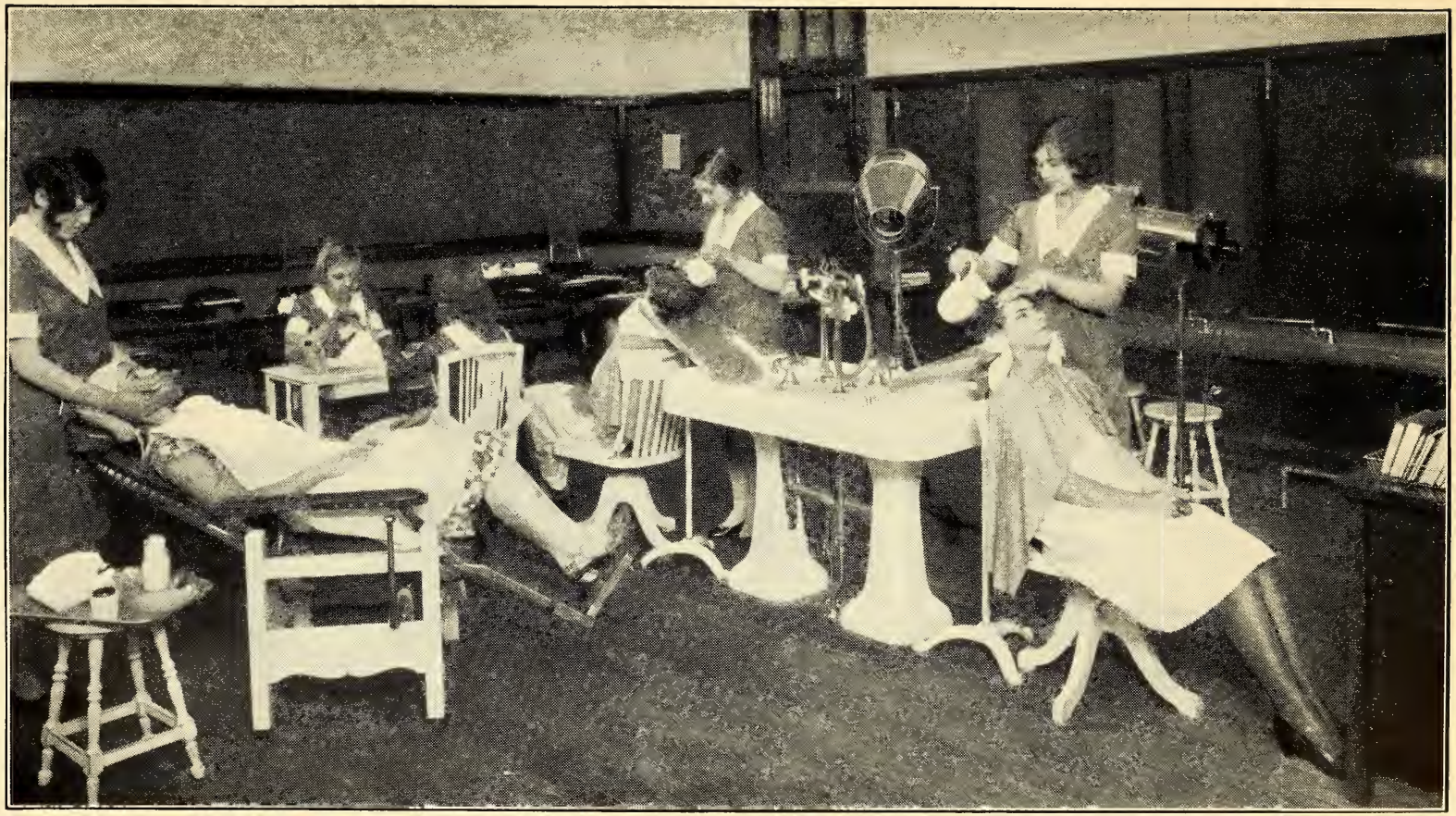
committees perform the following duties: pass upon applications which have been received and investigated by the staff; decide upon and raise the yearly budget and plan the most effective use of this budget; act as interpreters of scholarship work to the general lay public, not only to stimulate financial contributions but to spread the idea of the need for individual guidance; meet regularly for discussion of policies; frequently stimulate or assist in securing advanced child labor legislation.

Financing Scholarships

It seems most desirable to have an endowment fund, with a contingent clause which would provide for the use of the money for some allied purpose should the need for high-school scholarships ever disappear. Scholarships are now usually financed by community chests, clubs, parent-teacher associations, other organizations, private contributions, and endowments. Small contributions, valuable in spreading the scholarship idea, are encouraged. A scholarship of about $225 is usually sufficient for a school year.

A Central Organization

Assuming that a private agency is at present the most feasible means for administering scholarships, it is agreed that one central organization in each city, to administer funds from all sources, is more desirable than two or more agencies. In cities where a central organization has been established the scholarship committee encourages the collection of funds from as many sources as possible, and keeps those who have contributed informed of the progress of students to whom scholarships have been assigned. It is recognized that there are arguments both for and against this plan. On the one hand, with a central organization standards of selection and administration are uniform and a more just and thoughtful distribution of funds throughout the city is insured; on the other hand, if funds are administered by schools, clubs, and other social agencies, it is probable that more money



A VOCATIONAL TRYOUT COURSE IN PERSONAL HYGIENE AT A TECHNICAL HIGH SCHOOL FOR GIRLS

will be raised and so more scholarships will be available, but without as good supervision and guidance.

When scholarships are given by some of the large charity organizations, it is difficult to make clear any distinction between scholarships and relief. In New York and Baltimore, where scholarships are given respectively by the Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor and the Jewish Social Service Association, the organizations try to avoid this difficulty by having their own vocational guidance departments, where the vocational plans and the further education of children in families under their care are provided for on a scholarship basis.

Basis of Scholarship Grants

Though economic need is the principal reason for awarding a scholarship, there is wide variation in determining the need. When the scholarship fund is small, grants are usually given only when the family income is so low that the boy or girl would be obliged to leave school for work. Generally it is believed that if to keep a boy or girl in school the family standards of health and living have to be lowered to the detriment of the health and school work of the child, the scholarship is justified.

As a rule scholarships are granted to pupils who have more than average intelligence and are ambitious to continue their education. In at least one city, however, a special fund is set aside to be used for children of average or even less than average intelligence who are anxious to remain in school. This is done in the belief that many people of average mental ability who have determination and ambition and who are properly guided are sometimes more successful in life than those of superior intelligence who lack other qualities that make for success. This committee believes too that many dull children who leave school without sufficient training shift from job to job and often become delinquent; but that if such children remain in school and have educational and vocational guidance, adult unemployment and delinquency are lessened.

Relation to Family Relief Agencies

Scholarship committees in all cities urge relief-giving agencies to make no appreciable change in their grant to a family when a scholarship is given to one of the children. In several places the scholarship committees and the relief agencies have worked in cooperation, the scholarship organization usually having all contacts with the student but no responsibility for family problems. This is very satisfactory when the workers can keep in fairly constant touch with each other. It has a value for the adolescent child in making him feel more responsibility and more faith in himself. If the family has never been to a relief agency and needs financial assistance while the scholarship is being administered, the counselor, after winning the family's consent, refers it to the proper agency, cooperating with the relief worker. When only a slight service is needed, which may involve the student receiving the scholarship, the counselor handles it herself, using it as an opportunity to help the child realize his responsibility to the rest of the family, especially the younger brothers and sisters.

Scholarships Not Loans

It is rather generally agreed that loans should not be made to students in high school. If the applicant is in a position to do so, he may return the money; but the first responsibility of the scholarship recipient is for the education and physical welfare of the younger members of the family. It is also generally conceded that it is unfair to saddle a high-school pupil with debt for his secondary education.

Sources of Reference

Children are referred to the scholarship offices from schools, organizations, and individuals. The Scholarship Association for Jewish Children in Chicago, which has just made a study of its records for fifteen years, found that in round numbers 28 per cent of the children were referred by the schools, 43 per cent by social agencies, 7 per cent by the

juvenile court, 8 per cent by the parents or other relatives, 4 per cent by friends, leaving 10 per cent referred by others. Last year the Scholarship Committee of the White-Williams Foundation reported 45 per cent from schools, 43 per cent from social agencies, 5 per cent from parents or relatives, the remaining 7 per cent from other sources. The percentage of reference in other offices is also probably larger from schools and social agencies. Several committees have blank forms on which applications are made.

Procedure

The usual procedure in the case of a child referred for a scholarship is:

A visit to the home to determine the parents' inability to keep the child in school without assistance; to learn the parents' attitude in regard to education and to be assured of their cooperation. The amount of the scholarship is usually based on the family income and the standard budget in use by social agencies in the community.

A visit to the school to find out the child's progress in school and to learn something of his interest and abilities from his teachers.

An interview with the agencies in the community who are acquainted with the family, as shown by clearance with the local central registration office, in order that all may be working for best results in the interest of the child.

An interview with the child to find out whether he himself is ambitious to continue his schooling and what plans he has for the future. In the offices where some of the best work is done he is given a physical examination and achievement and aptitude tests to assist the counselor in giving him proper guidance. A record is kept of all information concerning the child, the home, and his scholarship in school. All later interviews are noted and plans and progress recorded.

Counseling Scholarship Pupils

In most cities the counselor sees the scholarship student either weekly or bi-weekly after the scholarship is granted, depending somewhat upon the need in the individual case. In the Vocational Service for Juniors, New York, the counselor sees about thirty-five pupils weekly in two groups with individual interviews at least once a month. In the Scholarship Association for Jewish Children in Chicago each student is seen by a counselor twice a month by regular appointment for a long interview, which may occur during the school period. Scholarship counselors agree that it is essential that some one person see each student frequently enough to win his confidence, and to know of any new problems he is facing in time to be of service to him in meeting them.

In the interview with the counselor the student discusses his problems both at school and at home, his recreation, reading, health, and so forth, and is given advice and guidance as needed. The counselor carefully watches the health of the boys and girls and provides for the correction of any physical defects; she encourages recreation and urges the pupils to join clubs and take part in school activities; she frequently plans for summer outings for those under her supervision. In two cities at least, New York and Chicago, scholarship students are sent to camp regularly each summer for two weeks.

The scholarship counselors are frequently called upon to give vocational guidance both for work after school and for the future.

Supervision After Employment

In the first months after the boys and girls have finished their courses and are finding themselves in the world of business or industry they often need a word of advice. Also the counselor should know how they are succeeding so that committees may evaluate their work and improve methods of dealing with future students. The present methods of student follow-up have been by letter, questionnaire, evening

office hours, alumni associations, and so forth, varying in the different cities, and the success of the method seems to depend upon the time put into it. In the Chicago Scholarship Association for Jewish Children the follow-up through a questionnaire in the fall, with evening office hours six months later, has proved as nearly successful as an organization can expect. The counselors have a serious talk with holders of scholarships when they graduate, explaining why follow-up contacts are important for the organization in helping them to know whether their methods have been wise, and so forth. This has tended to increase the cooperation on follow-up, which in Chicago is carried over a period of five years. The association reports that during 1927, when making a study of their work, they attempted to see 219 children and succeeded in seeing or hearing from all but one.

The New York Scholarship Committee of the Vocational Service for Juniors has also been successful in following many of its children. The Committee of the White-Williams Foundation of Philadelphia organized in 1920 a scholarship alumni association to provide a means of keeping in touch with former scholarship students and to gain their interest and help in the continuation and growth of the scholarship work. The main purpose of this association for the past two years has been to raise and give a scholarship each year to the foundation. The plan of following up students for five years by questionnaire was started about two years ago.

RECOMMENDATIONS

This brief report of scholarship work shows that it is done systematically under trained counselors in only a few of the larger cities, and even in these places is not reaching all the children who should have further educational opportunities. Because counselors have experimented so wisely, scholarship work has become part of the program for demonstration of the value of individualizing the child in school, and therefore takes its place with the other phases of student personnel work, such as visiting teacher activities, vocational guidance, and the work of the deans.

Scholarship work properly carried on brings large returns in education and character, the greatest assets of American children. These recommendations are therefore offered:

1. Provision should be made in every community for giving scholarships to children who through necessity would have to leave school for work as soon as the child labor law permits.

2. At the present time scholarships can be most effectively administered by a private or semi-public office working in close connection with the vocational guidance bureau and the local board of education.

3. Scholarships might best be administered by a central office to insure against waste and inefficiency in the dispensing of funds by small offices or individual schools of uneven standards.

4. Scholarship work should be directed by one who has an understanding of educational theory and practice, of industrial situations and of social case work theory and technique.

5. The investigation and supervision of scholarship cases should be based on accepted case work principles and approved case work methods, and each case should be treated as an individual matter. The study of each individual should include not only a study of the social and school situations but a physical and psychological examination of the child. Supervision should include study and treatment of social interrelations, health and recreational and vocational adjustments.

6. The amount of the scholarship grant should be determined on the basis of the accepted minimum budget used by the social agencies in the community. Children whose families maintain a standard of living slightly higher than that allowed by the accepted minimum budget should be considered, if there are indications that the child is being forced to go to work.

7. Follow-up work should be a definite part of a scholarship program.

OCCUPATIONAL STUDIES
FOR USE IN VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE

OCCUPATIONAL STUDIES

THE NEED FOR OCCUPATIONAL STUDIES

VOCATIONAL guidance presupposes a knowledge of vocations and related problems. The vocational counselor helping young people to discover their occupational interests and abilities and guiding them in their educational and vocational plans, the teacher of a class in occupations, the placement secretary securing employment for boys and girls, all need a fund of accurate, up-to-date, and unprejudiced information about vocational opportunities. They need to know the educational and training requirements for specific jobs, something of wages, working conditions, and opportunities for advancement within various fields of work. Experience has shown that such knowledge can best be gained, not only from a study of occupational investigations made by others but also by participation of the workers in occupational studies carried on in their own communities.

In recognition of this need for vocational information a number of school systems within the past ten years have included occupational research as an important feature of their vocational guidance programs.

HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT

Among the earliest of the occupational studies were *Trades for London Boys* (1908) and *Trades for London Girls* (1909),[1] prepared by the Apprenticeship and Skilled Employment Association, London, England. A similar study, which also appeared in 1908, was *A Handbook of Employ-*

[1] *Trades for London Boys.* New York, London, Longmans, Green & Co., 1908. *Trades for London Girls,* New York, London, Longmans, Green & Co., 1909.

ments [1] published in Aberdeen, Scotland. These studies of vocational opportunities apparently had a definite influence upon the first pamphlets published in this country.

The first occupational studies of a research pamphlet type appearing in the United States were published, 1910 to 1912, by the Boston Vocation Bureau. Frederick J. Allen, a pioneer in the vocational guidance movement, was the author. These studies were descriptive in character and were intended for reading in English and civics classes. Chicago entered the research field in 1911. Other early occupational studies (1913 to 1916) were prepared by the Alliance Employment Bureau of New York City, the parent of the present Vocational Service for Juniors. These early studies included reports of the vocational experiences of young people, and community surveys of industries and occupations for which vocational education was being planned.

During the World War period occupational research emphasized job analyses and specifications needed in connection with employment activities. The Federal Government made the largest contribution during this period in the detailed studies of single occupations prepared by the War Department, the Bureau of Labor Statistics, and the Federal Board for Rehabilitation.

By 1920 a number of the largest public school systems had centralized their research work, prepared regular schedules for industrial investigations, and had begun to build up at a central office a file of information about occupations and industries. Ten of these had begun to publish the results of their investigations in the form of occupational studies or pamphlets for the use of pupils and teachers in junior and senior high schools. By 1930 the number of school systems engaging in some form of occupational research had increased to fifty, about one-fourth of which were publishing the results of their investigations.

In addition to the occupational studies prepared by educational agencies and intended for guidance purposes, a great

[1] Gordon, M. M. *Handbook of Employments.* Aberdeen, Scotland, Rosemont Press, 1908.

amount of helpful occupational information is made available today by government departments of education, labor, and commerce, by social and service clubs, and by business firms and trade organizations.

During the past few years a number of vocational guidance textbooks have also been published, most of which have been prepared by teachers or counselors for use in occupations classes.

TRENDS

Certain definite trends are revealed through a study of present-day occupational research activities. In the first place occupational research is taking an increasingly important place in guidance programs. Although at present it is given less emphasis than other phases of guidance, indications from 150 questionnaires returned by public school systems in the summer of 1930, are that in the future it will be considered next to counseling in importance. In the second place, there is a growing tendency to organize a continuous service, often provided through a centralized bureau or department of vocational guidance. In the third place, the number of agencies of all kinds engaging in the preparation of occupational studies continues to increase in number, as do the number of studies and the variety of forms in which the material is presented. These forms include printed, mimeographed, and typed studies of varying lengths, intended for varying purposes; also a wealth of miscellaneous material such as lesson sheets, fliers, charts, statistical tables, bulletins, and reference notebooks. They are prepared for the use of teachers, counselors, and placement officers and for students from junior high school through college.

Still another trend noted is the attempt of workers in occupational research to improve the standards of such research, to make available technical information for the use of beginners in this field, and to coordinate the work of the communities engaged in the preparation of occupational studies through a continuous exchange of information about plans, methods, and results.

PRESENT STATUS OF OCCUPATIONAL RESEARCH

Agencies Engaged

Foremost among the agencies engaged in occupational research are the public schools and other organizations interested primarily in the instruction of youth. Fifty out of 150 public school systems to which the questionnaires on which this study is based were sent, reported that they make occupational studies. However, since it was possible to secure copies of occupational studies from only 14 public school systems in the United States, it seems probable that much of the research referred to is not a definitely organized activity, but consists of occasional investigations of occupations or industries made by various persons in the school systems, to acquaint themselves with the vocational problems of the community.

The Boston Vocation Bureau, which was the first organization to undertake the publication of occupational studies in this country, has discontinued this activity in recent years. The 14 public school systems which at present publish their material are those in Baltimore, Bridgeport, Chicago, Cincinnati, Cleveland, Detroit, Milwaukee, Minneapolis, New Orleans, New York City, Oakland, Philadelphia, Pittsburgh, and Providence. Since 1920 these public school systems have published over three hundred occupational studies, 60 per cent of which have been prepared during the past four years. The studies range from four-page leaflets to 150-page pamphlets which give detailed information concerning industries and occupational groups and include a large number of separate occupations.

According to the Bibliography of occupational pamphlets, page 107 of this book, 11 colleges and professional schools are also publishing material suitable for use in counseling in the high schools.

In addition to these agencies interested primarily in education and guidance the same Bibliography lists as publishers of occupational material, 3 business organizations, 3 gov-

ernmental agencies, and 18 miscellaneous agencies, including research groups, and such service organizations as the Young Women's Christian Association, the Kiwanis Club, and so forth. The Bibliography includes 444 occupational studies published by 47 different organizations, located in 26 cities and 18 states and the District of Columbia.

Range of Occupations Studied

The occupations studied by the public school systems range among the nine census classifications, with the largest number, 50 per cent, falling in the largest group, the manufacturing and mechanical industries. Of the total studies included in the general Bibliography of occupational pamphlets one-third may be grouped under manufacturing and mechanical industries, one-third under professional service, and the remaining third distributed among the other seven census divisions.

The occupations chosen for study are usually determined by the interests of the pupils, by the needs of the counselors, placement secretaries, or teachers for whose use the material is intended, and by the relative importance and size of the occupations in the community.

Style and Content of Studies

The style and content of the studies vary, of course, with their purpose. In general those published by the public school systems are intended to furnish occupational information for: (1) pupils and students—for use in securing a background of occupational information, to assist them in making educational and vocational plans; (2) vocational counselors—for use in helping young people to make educational and vocational plans; (3) teachers of occupations and other subjects, especially the social studies—for use in the classroom; (4) placement secretaries—for use in finding appropriate work for young people; (5) teachers and vocational guidance workers who are in training—for use in relation to profes-

sional improvement courses and staff conferences; (6) school administrators—for use in curriculum planning in order that instruction may be related to the needs of the community.

Chicago leads the way in the variety of its product, preparing and testing out material for all sorts of purposes and attempting to suit the style of its occupational studies and information to the needs of various groups.

In reporting the groups for which the studies were prepared, the fifty school systems engaged in occupational research indicate that teachers use them most; counselors come second, school children third, and placement workers, working children, and a miscellaneous group, including school officials, follow. Most of the schools indicated that their material is prepared for the use of several groups, although certain studies may be addressed to an adult group and certain others to children. Still others are written in simple enough language for children to read, but are so comprehensive in subject matter that they supply the need of counselors and teachers as well.

Over three-fourths of all the studies made by all of the agencies in the field were prepared for pupils of the elementary and junior high school grades. Of the remaining studies, by far the greatest number were written for the college level, with comparatively few prepared expressly for senior high school pupils. Material prepared for college students, however, may often be used for the more mature senior high school students and many of the pamphlets intended for children of junior high school age may also be used effectively with older students.

The belief seems to be growing that it is wise to prepare pamphlets suited to the needs and interests of different educational levels, such as junior and senior high school and college. A research project, however, may well be planned to procure material concerning various levels in occupations, that is, to give a picture of the entire occupational ladder in a particular field. College students not only want to know about the work of the skilled engineer, designer, or scientist,

but they are asking also for information about beginning positions which are preparatory to these, and are considering the qualifications and training necessary for these various levels of employment, and their interrelations. Pupils of junior and senior high schools, also, although they may not be planning to enter college, want to know about beginning positions and about the occupations for which these beginning positions may ultimately qualify them, either through experience in jobs or through the aid of special study.

One southern city is producing special studies for Negroes. Additional material concerning racial groups is also frequently included as a part of the general pamphlets. A very few studies have been prepared for use in work with special groups such as the physically handicapped. But most public school agencies prepare studies for use with the physically and intellectually normal youth, including perhaps some special information for handicapped groups.

Who Prepares Studies

While a number of cities advocate occupational research made through a central office manned by a special staff of competent research workers, it has also been held that "it is equally important that every counselor and every placement secretary should occasionally carry through a research project"; that it is "not enough to visit places of employment occasionally"; but that "each one should have the experience of planning, organizing, and carrying through a complete study of an occupation." Without occupational research, the vocational counselor and placement secretary have been likened to "near-sighted people trying to get along without glasses. They can see what is near at hand but they cannot see clearly or far." [1]

The positions of those engaged in preparing occupational studies in the 50 public school systems carrying on this activity are listed in Table 9.

[1] Fitch, J. A., "Employment Problems and their Relation to Vocational Guidance," *Vocational Guidance Magazine*, April, 1929.

TABLE 9

AUTHORS OF OCCUPATIONAL STUDIES [a]

Author	Smallest cities	Medium-sized cities	Largest cities	All cities
Vocational counselors	20	11	16	47
Special workers	0	1	3	4
Teachers assigned part-time	1	1	2	4
Teachers assigned full-time	0	1	1	2
Placement workers	0	0	1	1
Others [b]	0	0	4	4

[a] Based on replies from 50 public school systems. The figures in this table total more than the number replying because in some cities more than one type of worker makes occupational studies.

[b] Includes assistant in central office, director of vocational counselors, a part-time assistant, special committees of teachers supervised by director of guidance, and a counselor who is not a vocational counselor.

The amount of time which vocational counselors devote to the preparation of occupational studies was indicated by 28 public school systems. Six cities estimated the time as "very little," while 6 others said "unable to estimate" and one that the time "depends on needs." Fifteen cities gave specific answers to this question, showing that the time given by vocational counselors to preparing occupational studies ranged from two hours a month to half-time.

Some of the public school systems employ trained research workers to supervise and coordinate the occupational research activities of the vocational counselors. A number of cities supplement the occupational research done by vocational counselors with that of specially trained research workers. In one large school system, a definite portion of the counselors' time each week is set aside for occupational research; in another large system, each vocational counselor is required to give one month after the close of school to this work. In both of these cities, the work is supervised and coordinated from a central office by a director or supervisor of occupational research.

Value of Various Kinds of Material

The occupational studies prepared by members of the vocational guidance group are, of course, written from the educational viewpoint and aim to present unbiased and com-

plete pictures of individual occupations, professions, or industries with emphasis on local conditions. The pamphlets have been found valuable as supplementary material in occupations classes, for use in connection with vocational guidance textbooks or specially prepared outlines of study. They have been particularly useful in individual counseling.

Since the material used in vocational guidance must be accurate, comprehensive, and free from bias, it is important that literature prepared for purposes other than educational be carefully scrutinized and judiciously used. The literature published by trade and professional groups, although it contains much that is useful to the counselor or teacher, frequently is intended for advertising purposes and may not always give the balanced, well-rounded, and authentic picture that research yields. There also is need of warning against bias in studies which emanate from the employer himself. Authorities in the field of occupational research believe that before being used for guidance purposes all such material should be subject to the scrutiny of the research group of the National Vocational Guidance Association, or some other impartial body representing the educational point of view.

It is also felt that while studies which emphasize the occasional dramatic or striking phases of an occupation, or which call attention to evils to be remedied and the need for special legislation, are valuable, they should be used for guidance only by those who have a sufficient background of social, occupational, and curricular information to interpret this material correctly and to supplement it from other sources.

The vocational guidance textbooks which are appearing on the market in rapid succession are of service in occupations classes in giving a general survey of occupational opportunities and requirements. They do not entirely meet the need, however, and must be supplemented by information concerning local opportunities, just as texts relating to civics and problems of local government must be supplemented by additional material relating to the organization and methods of government in the community.

Standards for Occupational Research

In 1924, the Occupational Research Section of the National Vocational Guidance Association was organized to develop standards and improve methods for themselves and to assist others entering the field of occupational research. The members of this organization have for six years been analyzing and discussing their problems and have prepared a series of technical papers [1] on such subjects as the desirable content and uses of occupational studies, schedules, and methods of investigation, editing problems, bibliographies and reviews of pamphlet series, standards for judging studies, coordination of work between cities, and clearance services. These technical papers have been used freely in the preparation of the following pages which summarize standards for occupational research.

Desirable Content of Studies. One of the reports presented by the Occupational Research Section deals with the desirable content of occupational studies.[2] The returns from 99 representative users of occupational material on which the above study was based, indicated that both long and short printed reports of occupations are needed. The short study proved "best for young people in explanatory and self-finding courses in occupations, when a quick, extensive and general survey of the world's work was being made," and "for adults, when only general information in clear concise form was wanted." The longer studies, on the other hand, were found to be of special value in the upper grades, for teachers, counselors, and placement workers, "more adapted for widespread use," and more valuable for reference.

The answers were about equally divided as to whether, if only one size of report were to be printed, it should be the long or the short study. On the basis of this study, it seems desirable that any report that is to have widespread circulation should be printed in both forms whenever possible.

[1] Appendix F, p. 355.
[2] Lane, M. R., *Occupational Studies. See* Bibliography.

In general, the content of the best known of the occupational studies has included the following topics: nature, importance, and history of the occupation;[1] opportunities for junior employment and instruction, including the departmental and occupational organizations of the entire business;[2] working conditions, detailing the various economic, physical, and social conditions, the advantages and disadvantages of the occupations, and, in some cases, more detailed job analyses; bibliographies or selected reading lists.

Biographical sketches or specific cases of young workers have been suggested as additional features which would increase the interest of these reports. Standard outlines of topics to be included in both the long and the short studies have been agreed upon by members of the Occupational Research Section.[3]

Standards for Collecting Information. Material for occupational studies is secured through library research, investigation of individual business and industrial establishments, and interviews with employers, employees, and others qualified to give information on the subject studied.

Great care should be exercised in the selection of establishments to be visited and persons to be interviewed in order that all points of view may be included and a well-rounded picture presented in the final report. The following points are considered essential in carrying on the study: (1) that the total number of local establishments in the community employing workers in the occupation, and the total number of workers, be obtained; (2) that an adequate number of very large plants, medium-sized plants, and small plants be included (with a representative proportion of union and nonunion plants); (3) that a sufficient number of interviews be held with workers, preferably away from their places of employment; (4) that interviews be arranged with employers

[1] The 99 users of occupational studies referred to above generally agreed that this part of the content might be omitted since it can be secured from library references.

[2] Departmental organization is of value in showing the relation between beginning and more advanced jobs.

[3] *See* Appendix F, p. 355.

and managers, with officials of employers' associations and labor unions, and with technical, scientific, and educational authorities in the field.

The interpretation of the word "adequate" will, of course, depend upon the conditions within each community, upon the size of the establishments, the number of workers, the extent of the influence of employees' associations, and other local situations. While it has never been determined what per cent of establishments may be considered adequate, some of the most comprehensive occupational studies in the field are based on visits to 65 per cent of the establishments, which employ 87 per cent of the workers engaged in the occupation studied. The higher per cent of workers, as compared with the lower per cent of establishments, is explained by the fact that a high per cent of large and medium-sized establishments, but only a fair sample of hundreds of small establishments employing a few workers each, was visited to give an adequate picture of the working conditions and occupational opportunities.

Several of the cities in which occupational research is most completely organized emphasize the value of filing with each completed study a record of the methods used in its preparation, giving the per cent of all establishments visited, the per cent of all workers interviewed in the community, reports of other visits and interviews, and a summary of criticisms. A brief statement of this information should also be an important part of the foreword or introduction. It is surprising to note that editors of a number of studies have not included a statement relating to the source of material and methods of procedure, and that others have not included the dates of preparation and of printing, which are important if one is to know how accurate the information is at the time that it is consulted.

The schedules, write-ups of interviews, and so on, secured in the process of making an investigation should, of course, be filed for reference. To them may be added all occupational information gathered by other members of the staff, regardless of the purpose for which it is obtained.

Visiting places of employment is a necessary function of placement workers, and although information obtained from such visits may never be printed, the records kept by the placement office make valuable contributions for those who prepare occupational studies.

Information gathered by the teacher or vocational counselor, incidental to her regular duties, may later be of use to the research worker. All the information so gathered will be of far greater value if the methods used to procure it meet satisfactory standards of research, if a somewhat comprehensive plan for visiting is made in advance, if uniform schedules and instructions are used, and if the schedules are so filed that they are available for necessary additions in the future, and for use by others.

Such a plan for procuring occupational information from visits to business and industrial establishments should reduce unnecessary duplications, improve the quality of the information procured, and bring each teacher of occupations and each vocational counselor into wider contact with the vocational problems of the community than would be possible if each worked alone. Even a very simple program of this kind may well be the beginning of a more comprehensive plan for occupational research and may result in studies, printed or mimeographed, for use in the schools of the community. However, it is important that work of this kind shall not be carried on without preliminary study of the methods, standards, and products of occupational research now available.

Schedules for Collecting Data. In 1927, a member of the Occupational Research Section of the *National Vocational Guidance Association* drafted tentative schedules for firm investigations which might be used as a standard. As it was realized that occupational research carried on in small and large cities may differ not only in quantity but in intensity and thoroughness, two sets of schedules [1] were developed, a simpler one for use in the smaller city or by beginners, and a more elaborate one for the larger city, where special research workers may be employed.

[1] *See* Appendix F, p. 355.

Problems of Writing and Editing the Studies. Where the necessary skills are combined in one person and it is possible to have the work supervised and checked, it has been found preferable to have one worker carry through the investigation and summarize and write the study. The following standards have been recommended for the style:[1]

It should be brief and concise in the use of words; direct, accurate, and consistent in statement; definite and clear in meaning; it should sustain the interest of the reader.

Special emphasis has also been placed on the need for avoiding difficult technical terms and too much statistical presentation and detail; for writing from the educational viewpoint; and for emphasizing the features in content, style, and mechanical make-up that will prove attractive to children of the age level for which the studies are intended.

An estimate made by two cities which were among the first to enter the field of occupational research, gives some idea of the proportion of time spent in the various phases of preparing the studies. About the same amount of time was spent in writing the report as in gathering the information, and half, or more than half, as much time was consumed in editing and revising the manuscript before and after it was submitted to critics, as was spent in writing the original draft. Occasionally editors and supervisors of research have found it necessary to revise the completed manuscript a number of times before it is submitted to others for criticism.

The responsibility for careful proofreading and attractive set-up also belongs to the editor, as does the final step of securing the copyright, which it is customary to obtain in order to prevent misuse of the studies.

Criticism of the Studies. Much importance is attached to the practice of submitting the manuscript for criticism to representatives of employers' and employees' associations, to individual employers and workers and to technical authorities and leaders in the field. It is advisable also to submit it to those interested in industrial health, economics, vocational guidance, and vocational education.

[1] Schauffler, M. C., "Standards for Evaluating Occupational Studies for a Critical Bibliography." *See* Bibliography.

These critics are chosen because they are actively in contact with the technical problems presented and are recognized as authorities; they have the necessary educational background and critical ability to give helpful suggestions; they represent different points of view. For example, among the employers selected as critics, it is important to choose those representing large as well as small establishments, those representing both union and non-union shops.[1]

The question as to which criticisms shall be accepted usually can be determined on the basis of accuracy. If sufficient information has not been obtained to arrive at the facts, additional research is made to secure it. One city reported that employers in one instance objected to statements that were included about hazards, in which case, government reports were taken as the authority. When an employer's objection to the scope or point of view of a study is contrary to the point of view of the school system, the criticism is not accepted.

Mechanical Make-up. Standards that have been developed for mechanical make-up include:[2] size—approximately that of government bulletins, 6″ x 9″; the variety in size of the present pamphlets interferes with efficient filing; binding—attractive and durable; paper—restful to the eye and serviceable; printing—easy to read and attractive in set-up; illustrations—of employees at work, processes, tools, and working conditions.

Simple tables and outlines have been used to clarify the material, and illustrations add both to the interest and to the clarity.

Cost of Studies

No adequate study of the cost of occupational studies has yet been carried out, although one report was made, based on estimates from seven public school systems.[3]

[1] Corre, M. P., "Problems of Summarizing and Editing Occupational Studies." *See* Bibliography.

[2] Schauffler, M. C., *op cit.*

[3] Shields, Wilmer. ***Cost of Publishing and Distributing Occupational Studies.*** *See* Bibliography.

The costs of printing naturally vary with the size of the study, the number of illustrations, and the size of the edition. The experience of three large cities, according to the report cited, shows that the cost of printing for illustrated studies may range from $3.50 to $5.50 a page for 1,000 copies, and from $5.50 to $9.00 a page for 5,000 copies. If the salaries of the investigators are also considered, the amount, of course, will be much larger.

The combined costs of printing and salaries, in other words, the total cost of preparing an occupational study, with the exception of typing and other small miscellaneous costs, might be expected to range from $18.50 to $24.50 a page for 1,000 copies, and from $20.50 to $28.00 a page for 5,000 copies. On the basis of these figures 1,000 copies of a forty-page pamphlet might cost from $750 to $1,000. Estimates gleaned from other sources indicate that the above figures are somewhat higher than necessary; but they are given here as estimates which will be supplemented by investigations to be made by occupational research workers in the near future.

The cost of preparation has been cut down in certain instances by mimeographing instead of printing the studies, although the result is neither so easy to read nor so attractive in appearance. Costs can also be reduced by the use of school printing.

One city quoted in this investigation of costs reported a reduction in printing charges by securing the interest of organizations or associations connected with the occupation and getting them to finance the printing. Most authorities in the field strongly disapprove of this practice, since there is grave danger that private financing may limit the independence of the report, or lessen the confidence that should be placed in it by all groups within the community.

It has been customary in many cases to make a charge for copies of the studies, in order to cover a part of the cost. The charges range from ten to sixty-five cents per pamphlet. The pamphlets are, of course, distributed free to those for whose use they were especially prepared, and ex-

change privileges have been arranged among many of the cities preparing occupational studies.

Coordination of Studies

The Occupational Research Section of the National Vocational Guidance Association has developed a coordination plan whereby eleven agencies engaged in occupational research have agreed to adhere to certain standards and regulations, exchange material, and keep one another informed as to the studies they are carrying on at the present time and those they are planning for the future. It is their hope that this coordination program will prove of such value that a more comprehensive plan may be developed in the near future, by means of which occupational research may be coordinated under the leadership of a trained and experienced research secretary. Such a plan can be expected to reduce the overlapping in occupational research activities, improve standards of research, provide material of nation-wide value for cities now preparing studies of purely local significance, and provide occupational studies for use by many communities not equipped to undertake the complete preparation of their own studies but able to use studies of broader scope and check them against their own local conditions.

SUMMARY AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Occupational studies are a necessary tool of vocational guidance. They serve the following purposes: (1) to give information to young people regarding the duties, conditions of work, and the preparation necessary for the occupations which they eventually may enter; (2) to provide a background of adequate industrial knowledge for vocational counselors, placement workers, teachers of occupations, and all others who serve in an advisory capacity to young people.

Occupational studies are of varying value, according to the standards which have been employed in their preparation. Therefore:

1. Occupational research should be made a part of every vocational guidance program.

2. Occupational studies should be general in so far as the information is nationally applicable, and specific in regard to the local community where, presumably, the majority of young workers will find occupation.

3. The preparation of these studies should be carefully controlled and financed by the school system or an equally unprejudiced agency.

4. The studies should be criticized by those representing many points of view in order that the result may be accurate, adequate, unprejudiced, and comprehensible to the group for whom it is intended.

5. The direction and final editing of such studies should be in the hands of persons trained in the methods of industrial research but because of the educational value contained therein all counselors, placement workers, social studies teachers, and others who have occasion to advise with the child in relation to his occupational and educational plans, should be given some practical first-hand experience in the preparation of such studies.

6. A national clearing house for occupational information should be established in order to:

Avoid duplication
Set up adequate standards for preparation of such studies
Bring out national similarities and local differences inherent in a given occupation
Provide assistance and stimulus for new groups to develop such studies

7. In the preparation of occupational studies consideration should be given to their possible value in curriculum planning, so that instruction may be more closely related to the problems of the community.

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CURRICULUM WORK IN VOCATIONAL AND EDUCATIONAL GUIDANCE

CURRICULUM WORK

THE PLACE OF GUIDANCE IN THE CURRICULUM

WE have so far considered the uses of research and measurements and individual counseling; let us now inquire how vocational guidance may be facilitated by organizing definite classes in the pupil's curriculum.

Will individual counseling suffice, supplemented perhaps by occasional talks or group conferences? If classes are needed, can space be found for them in the overcrowded curriculum? Will once-a-week classes be enough? Shall such classes be taught by home-room teachers, by English or civics teachers, or by persons specially interested in and prepared for the work? Shall textbooks be used, and what shall be the content of the class work and the methods used? What may such classes be expected to accomplish for educational and vocational guidance and for child health and protection? What relationship shall classroom work bear to individual counseling, testing, placement, vocational education, and practical arts studies?

Neither fixed principles of education nor experience already gained can authoritatively answer these questions in a movement only two decades old. But we can suggest answers to some of them, describe actual practice, and summarize what seems desirable.

One reason for organizing classes is economy. The common and necessary facts about educational opportunity and occupational life are so numerous that to repeat them in a succession of personal interviews is wasteful of time. Further, and more important, classroom instruction and discussion promote the development of that wisdom, those methods of study, those attitudes which help the young person to plan and manage his own career. To secure these advan-

tages there must be room in the curriculum for classes in vocational and educational guidance.

It is becoming more obvious that whenever the child is asked to undertake an educational journey, he should have the benefit of guidebooks and advice. Educational and vocational guidance are inextricably intertwined, for these reasons among others: The educational work is the child's present vocation. Going to school is much like going to work—the same general rules of success apply, and success in school helps to bring success in work. Going to school is directly succeeded by work in an occupation. Educational decisions, such as choice of studies, courses, schools, and so forth, represent forks in the road ahead which lead almost in every case to a vocational decision as well, for even the curricula of junior and senior high schools are pointed directly toward certain classes of careers. For these reasons, we shall assume that educational and vocational information are usually combined in the classes described.

PRESENT COURSES AND TEACHERS

The questionnaire used for this study yielded a number of interesting facts about present practice. Replies were received from 150 cities: 72, 42, 36 respectively from the three population groups.[1] In the figures given in Tables 10 to 17 occasional answers were omitted by some of the 150 cities, while other answers are cumulative on account of the fact that more than one item was checked.

TABLE 10

SPECIAL COURSE IN OCCUPATIONS

Answer	Smallest cities	Medium-sized cities	Largest cities	All cities
Yes	46	29	30	105
No	17	8	5	30
Total	63	37	35	135

[1] *See* Foreword and Appendix A, page 305.

According to Table 10, 78 per cent, 105 out of 135, of the cities are maintaining separate classes for the study of occupational and educational information. It may safely be assumed that this is a high proportion for cities in general.

Of the largest cities reporting, 86 per cent state that special classes exist; 78 per cent of the middle-size cities (fifty to one hundred thousand population), and 73 per cent of the smallest cities (twenty-five to fifty thousand).

TABLE 11

GRADES HAVING SPECIAL COURSES IN OCCUPATIONS

Grade	Smallest cities	Medium-sized cities	Largest cities	All cities
6th	1	0	1	2
7th	8	9	13	30
8th	17	14	10	41
9th	29	14	23	66
10th	3	1	2	6
11th	4	1	1	6
12th	0	1	0	1
13th	1	0	0	1
Junior high school	1	1	1	3
High school	4	0	1	5
Vocational school	1	0	0	1
Total	69	41	52	162

Eighty-four per cent of these classes appear to be in the junior high school grades—seventh, eighth, ninth—with 18 per cent in the seventh, 25 per cent in the eighth, and 41 per cent in the ninth (Table 11).

The general proportion among the three groups of cities does not differ materially, except that the middle group gives equal emphasis to the eighth and ninth grades. The next greatest frequency outside junior high school is for the tenth and eleventh grades, though less than 4 per cent reported classes.

TABLE 12

INSTRUCTORS IN OCCUPATIONS CLASSES

Instructor	Smallest cities	Medium-sized cities	Largest cities	All cities
Counselors	15	7	17	39
Teachers	36	22	24	82
Both	5	0	11	16

Replies to the question, "Who gives the courses?" (Table 12) show that counselors are used in about one-third of the cities, and teachers in two-thirds, with a distinct leaning toward counselors in the large cities.

TABLE 13

TYPE OF TEACHERS ASSIGNED TO OCCUPATIONS CLASSES

Teachers	Smallest cities	Medium-sized cities	Largest cities	All cities
Civics	18	9	9	36
Social studies	9	4	6	19
Home room	7	5	1	13
English	3	1	3	7
Industrial arts	1	1	0	2
Home economics	0	1	0	1
Economics	1	0	1	2
Geography	0	2	0	2
Commercial department	1	0	0	1
Arithmetic	0	1	0	1
History	0	1	0	1
Teachers specially assigned "Guidance," "Orientation," "Occupation"	3	3	3	9
Varies	0	1	0	1
Total	43	29	23	95

Teachers of other subjects who are drafted into teaching occupational information (Table 13) are drawn from many departments, though those designated as teachers of civics or social studies are given this assignment in about 58 per cent of the 95 cities reporting. Nine cities assign teachers who seem to bear the guidance label, one way or another.

TABLE 14

BASIS FOR CHOOSING OCCUPATIONS TEACHERS

Basis of choice	Smallest cities	Medium-sized cities	Largest cities	All cities
Special qualification	19	11	16	46
Interest in subject	23	5	13	41
Relation to regular subject	16	10	11	37
Time available	11	6	7	24
Total	69	32	47	148

Teachers giving these classes in occupational information appear to be chosen (Table 14) on account of special quali-

fications and interest, though in about one-sixth of the cases time available on the program seemed to govern the choice.

TABLE 15

LENGTH OF COURSE IN OCCUPATIONS

Time	Smallest cities	Medium-sized cities	Largest cities	All cities
Less than 1 semester	5	4	8	17
1 semester	22	7	13	42
1 year	8	7	3	18
6 "terms"	0	0	2	2
6 semesters	0	1	0	1
2 years	3	1	0	4
3 years	0	0	1	1
Total	38	20	27	85

About four-fifths of the cities state that the length of the course is one semester or longer, and about 30 per cent designate the period as one year or longer. Four cities out of 85 reporting give two years as the term and one, three years.

TABLE 16

INCLUSION OF OCCUPATIONAL INFORMATION IN OTHER COURSES

Answer	Smallest cities	Medium-sized cities	Largest cities	All cities
Yes	46	26	26	98
No	15	10	6	31
Total	61	36	32	129

Seventy-six per cent of the cities reporting, 98 out of 129, state that information about occupations is included in courses in other studies, such as civics and English (Table 16 and 17).

The answers indicate that 16 of the 98 cities replying yes to this question had no regular courses in occupations but used the other studies instead as a vehicle for giving information. It is significant that only 3 of the larger cities and 5 of the middle size group are using this substitution method exclusively.

It should here be noticed that other kinds of experiences are often used by the schools to furnish vocational informa-

TABLE 17

COURSES THAT INCLUDE INFORMATION ON OCCUPATIONS [a]

Courses	Smallest cities	Medium-sized cities	Largest cities	All cities
Civics	29	19	21	69
English	5	4	7	16
Social studies	6	2	2	10
Commercial subjects	3	3	2	8
Vocational tryouts	2	2	0	4
General science	0	1	1	2
Economics	1	0	0	1
Art	0	1	0	1
Music	0	1	0	1
All subjects	2	0	0	2

[a] Addition of columns not possible as many cities checked more than one subject.

tion. Two are particularly valuable: exploratory courses or tryouts, and extracurricular activities. Professor Leonard V. Koos and Professor Grayson N. Kefauver recently made an extensive study of 46 junior high schools to discover what kinds of exploratory courses were being carried on. They have kindly made their information, as yet unpublished in complete form, available for this study, and these data are given in Table 18.

TABLE 18

PERCENTAGE OF 46 JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS WITH DIFFERENT EXPLORATORY COURSES

Course	Grade VII	Grade VIII	Grade IX	Entire school
General shop	32.6	21.7	17.4	36.9
Woodwork	63.0	67.4	58.7	80.4
Machine shop	13.0	19.6	17.4	21.7
Sheet metal	23.9	26.1	17.4	39.1
Automobile mechanics	3.0	13.0	15.2	21.7
Mechanical drawing	45.7	52.2	50.0	71.7
Electricity	32.6	32.6	26.1	54.3
Printing	19.6	21.7	13.0	28.3
Typing	0.0	23.9	17.4	28.3
Shorthand	0.0	2.2	6.5	6.5
Bookkeeping	0.0	4.3	23.9	23.9
Elementary business	2.2	17.4	15.2	30.4
Cooking	56.5	56.5	37.0	67.4
Sewing	60.9	52.2	41.3	65.2
Agriculture	4.3	4.3	6.5	10.9
Music	52.2	50.0	45.7	52.2
Freehand drawing	47.8	43.5	39.1	47.8

Some of these courses are hardly exploratory in nature, though *general shop* and *elementary business* include sample activities resembling actual work, and are likely to have a diagnostic effect for pupils interested in the industrial and commercial callings.

Student activities likewise are almost universal throughout American school systems and undoubtedly have important effects in developing those qualities of organizing ability and other skills in human relations which are manifested in and useful for many callings. Research is needed to discover actual uses of specific student activities, and interests and abilities useful in occupational life; but that these values exist there can be no doubt.

When the questionnaire blanks were returned to the Committee they were accompanied by many papers illustrating the work in classes in educational and occupational information. From the answers and the illustrative material it is not difficult to picture the present situation in respect to the typical American city and to characterize the outstanding examples of work in guidance. The typical city offers its children a one-semester ninth-grade course in occupational information given by a fairly well qualified teacher experienced in teaching the social studies who meets the class probably three or four times a week. In addition, an effort is made to have other teachers give occupational information incidental to civics, English, and geography. The typical city doubtless also maintains exploratory courses in industrial and commercial projects, and organizes clubs and other student activities of various sorts which have a more or less definite or implied relation to vocational discovery.

The cities with an exceptionally good vocational guidance program are likely to carry on a class in educational and occupational information meeting five times a week at the very beginning of the school program, such a course serving as a vestibule, as it were, to the later choices required by the specializations offered within the school. This class emphasizes educational guidance.

In any exceptionally good system there will be another

class perhaps a year and a half or two years later, also meeting five times a week for a semester and devoted more especially to the new questions now presenting themselves to a majority of the pupils, particularly vocational choice and plans for preparation and entrance upon work. The teacher of such a class has prepared herself for the work by a university course in occupational information and has probably had extensive teaching experience in the social studies or in English before undertaking to teach occupations.

A DESIRABLE PLAN

It is interesting to note that when a school has experimented successfully with a one-semester class, the next step often is to lengthen the course to one year. Next, it is perceived that a continuous year is not so good as two classes with an interval between them. Finally, the problem is studied with reference to the forks in the road ahead, and it is arranged to place these orientation courses in the semesters preceding important choices.

Educational Guidance

As preparation for successful work and for choices about to be made, preview courses are necessary in those subjects which involve consecutive work; the class in general science, well established through long usefulness, is a good example. General mathematics and general foreign languages are other courses now well beyond the experimental stages in progressive communities. The guidance outcomes of such an exploratory course in academic subjects are: (1) It discovers interest and ability in the general field and thus helps in deciding whether or not a pupil should go on to specialized, advanced work. (2) It aids pupils to decide what section of the field (as, which particular science or modern language) to elect. (3) It thus helps to insure success and prevent failure. (4) It forms an excellent introduction for advanced work. (5) It gives a little valuable cultural study to those

who might not otherwise choose any of the courses in the subject.

There should be also a class in educational information, possibly combined with vocational, including such topics as how to study, the educational opportunities available in the school, information on choice of electives, choice of curricula, choice of college, and the like.

It is of great importance for every major subject in the curriculum to have as its first course a preview of the whole subject with much information for the pupils as to where the subject leads and what its uses are in life. At strategic points throughout the child's curriculum, courses in mathematics, science, music, art, history, and all the rest should be general in nature, summing up what has gone before and preparing the way for later study.

Guidance Through the Practical Arts

Practical arts experience, offered before specialized curricula are chosen by the pupils, should take the form of elementary exercises in gardening, home making, industry, and commerce, together with clubs and other student activities. Projects in gardening and agriculture give at least some notion about the work of the farmer. Similarly well selected samples of work with tools, machines, and materials will furnish much exploration of ability and interest in industrial tasks. Junior business projects should not select samples of the work of adult callings like stenography, bookkeeping, and salesmanship, because these are too advanced and complex for sample purposes; they should be composed rather of juvenile tasks appropriate to young workers. Such courses, along with exploratory work in gardening and industries, should be given to all children in the junior high school before choice of curriculum is required. They have diagnostic value in that a pupil who succeeds in a good course in junior business projects is likely to succeed, if he wishes to attempt it, in commercial training and occupational service in commerce; while, correspondingly, a pupil who fails in the work

would normally be a poor risk to go forward in that line. For similar reasons commercial projects on a higher level should be arranged within the commercial curriculum to discover abilities appropriate to choices within the commercial field, such as special trends toward high-grade clerical work, secretarial work, accounting, sales, or executive work.

Clubs and student activities may sometimes be substituted for industrial, agricultural, and commercial class projects, though in reality both are desirable. The 4-H clubs are excellent for discovering ability in agriculture, as are the junior achievement clubs for discovering and developing industrial and commercial ability. Similarly, work on the school paper, in debating and musical organizations, athletics, and clubs or societies for various forms of work and play have important vocational implications, particularly in developing those forms of skill and knowledge which will reveal interests and abilities leading to vocational choice, preparation, and success. Together with the courses in practical arts they have similar outcomes to those given above for the academic exploratory courses.

Furthermore, they teach the meaning of work and the common problems of working alone and with others, and they develop elementary knowledge and wisdom useful in those larger social and civic aspects of occupational life that require extensive cooperation for their solution.

The actual tryout should develop out of wide experience in the exercises of the practical arts curriculum. The exploration of interests and abilities leads into a more intensive contact with one or two fields of service. This aids in tentative or final choice and leads to training.

Wise directors of vocational guidance are careful not to stress the mere matter of choice. They see that rapid changes are all about us; they note that at the time of Frank Parsons, the founder of the modern movement for guidance, there were almost no workers engaged in the automobile industry, aviation, radio, and moving pictures. It becomes clear that careful choices of today may be useless a few years hence. For

these and other reasons versatility is required, and the practical arts exploratory courses will markedly aid in giving the wide background needed.

The communities doing outstanding work with these courses, if practical arts courses are forward looking, have found the general shop useful in presenting projects of many types drawn from industry, and courses in general junior business training have been adopted widely at the beginning of the commercial curriculum, or just before it. Thus, young persons are given opportunity to see the road ahead before entering it.

WORK IN VOCATIONAL INFORMATION

Experiences with occupational samples, however, must be supplemented by classroom instruction and discussion on the characteristics of the common vocations: practice must be integrated with theory and information. It is for this purpose that classes in occupations are organized, to be conducted simultaneously with the exploratory courses and to begin at least a year before a major decision on the choice of a career is made. It is urged that teachers of these courses pay less attention to teaching facts than to teaching methods of occupational analysis and self-analysis so that pupils may develop the habit of analyzing occupational problems as they arise in their lives. This persists, while occupational facts often are soon forgotten.

In such a plan the case method is frequently used. Thus the teacher may suppose an actual situation of a boy who, let us say, is trying to decide whether or not to stay in school. The pupils considering this case can develop either as an assigned lesson or through classroom discussion the actual alternatives presented, and may then be taught to analyze the pros and cons of each alternative. This should help children to protect themselves against quick decisions and wrong decisions, since they will learn how to judge the advantages and disadvantages of any alternative presented to them.

In this connection it is important to teach the pupils a good, simple outline for the study of a job or an occupation. Repeated use of such an outline should help to fix it in thought and make it available whenever required. Many such outlines have been proposed; perhaps the following is typical: importance of the calling to society, work done, advantages, disadvantages, qualities required, preparation needed or desirable, income, effect on the worker.[1]

For older pupils in high school grades this problem of analysis and consideration of alternatives becomes even more important. Thus junior and senior students in high schools are capable of profiting by an elementary exposition and discussion of job analysis and the use of the various methods to analyze the qualifications of individuals for particular occupations. College students also, of course, should have the benefit of such teaching. Much help can be given in the counseling program and much valuable time saved, for both instructors and students, by teaching these methods of analysis in classes.

As to factual material, pupils in junior and senior high school need the larger and more obvious information rather than the detailed. It has been found that many boys considering electrical engineering do not know the difference between an electrician and an electrical engineer; that many do not know most engineering work is carried on indoors; that many girls think the commercial course is the best preparation for a commercial teacher; that boys have many wrong notions about the work of the doctor or lawyer on points which are clear to most adults. Such facts are more important than rates of pay and statistics on the number of workers.

There are approximately eighty occupations containing more than one hundred thousand workers each, and these are clearly the chief ones which should be emphasized. The

[1] Outlines longer and fuller in scope and detail may be found in Appendix E, p. 345.

Other outlines used in the preparation of occupational studies may also be of assistance in this connection. *See* Appendix E, p. 345.

common occupational opportunities in agricultural, industrial, commercial, and professional life should be studied; also the larger problems of occupational life as, for example, labor and employer organizations, the fluctuation and steadying of employment, how to apply for a job, securing promotion, various forms of vocational training, the right uses of evening and correspondence schools, relations between worker and employer, methods of wage payment, and government regulation.

It will be seen at once that the current plan for one semester's work three or five times a week is insufficient in view of the social and individual importance of the work. The issue presented by the problem of the so-called *overcrowded curriculum* is to be solved by comparing the various kinds of subject matter now being taught in the school with the very necessary subject matter of the classes in guidance. When the growing literature is studied and the teacher has resourcefulness and imagination, there can be provided information and exercises enough for at least one full year five times a week. As already noted, the two semesters had better be separated and each placed at a strategic place before important decisions are to be made. If the choice of curricula occurs at the beginning of the ninth grade, then an eighth grade class should be organized. Later, perhaps in the tenth or eleventh grade, when important questions come up about continuing in school or dropping out or planning for college or immediate occupational service, another course should be provided stressing these decisions.

Some authorities recommend a continuing study of occupational information by means of combining counseling with a one-hour class throughout the entire school experience of the pupil. The theory is that the pupil's study of occupational information will thus become cumulative and more likely to be applied to his actual needs. This experiment is likely to succeed if adequate supervision is given. We do not raise objection to any plan which is well conceived and carefully administered, and we predict that many valuable experiments will be tried.

SUBJECT MATTER

There are many good textbooks and books for auxiliary reading now available for both junior and senior high schools, as well as for colleges.[1] Several cities provide their own published studies on occupational problems.[2] The locally published study when used without textbooks or organized lesson plans presents a number of disadvantages: (1) It often contains too many facts, and facts too technical for the pupils to understand and profit by. (2) It rarely contains exercises, and without these the teacher is somewhat at a loss in the classroom. (3) Long pamphlets on specific callings do not encourage simultaneous comparison of two or more occupations, which the youngster needs. For a variety of reasons applicable to all school subjects, the use of textbooks or carefully organized lesson plans is to be recommended. In all cases, however, material collected by teachers, counselors, pupils, and others may be used to supplement the textbook, particularly when these bear upon local situations.

Counselors may well build up a file of current material on occupations and a library of books. The children should have access to several textbooks. Other forms of subject matter, such as magazines, posters, cartoons, and so forth, are also appropriate.

Subject matter and material for educational guidance may be furnished through pamphlets and books on how to study, school circulars and college catalogues, guidebooks, pictures, circulars of vocational schools, and so forth. The coordination of such materials and their wise use in a number of situations are important. For example, the waiting room of the counselor's office should be provided with interesting subject matter to give a preliminary zest for the interview and to avoid wasting time.

[1] *See* Bibliography.

[2] The Bibliography gives lists under the different section headings of the report, such as "Counseling," "Placement," and so forth.

METHODS OF TEACHING

The class in educational and occupational information may be taught by methods similar to those used by good teachers of any other social study such as geography or civics. Resourcefulness and versatility on the part of the teacher are more important than the use of any one method. Many teachers have done well with the cooperative method, and committee investigations and reports are successful. The so-called *rotating plan* [1] by which committees divide the topics of the outline for report to the class is a good plan. We have spoken before of the case method; it should frequently be used as an important method of teaching the class in occupations.

Notebooks are useful, but every clipping and illustration should be documented as to its source and date, and material written by the pupil should predominate. There are many other supplementary methods, as, for example, talks by outsiders, trips, visual aids, and the like. Talks by outsiders should come as a reward of merit and not as a regular method. The geography of South America would never be taught by presenting noted travelers to the children to give lectures. Yet a similar plan is seriously proposed—for successful men to tell children how and why they succeeded. The plan has repeatedly failed and can never take the place of a good teacher and textbook. As a general rule, no such speakers should be used until there has been a thorough preparation of the class to secure full value from their talks.

Visits to industrial and commercial establishments are time consuming and often a great inconvenience to the business men concerned, yet an occasional visit can be made very useful, provided again that there has been thorough preparation for the visit. There should also be a comprehensive discussion and perhaps assigned work based upon the visit after it has been made. Visual aids in the way of pictures,

[1] Boyle, J., and Saul, J. H. *Rotating Plan for the Study of Occupations.* *See* Bibliography.

slides, stereoscopic views, moving pictures, exhibits, and so forth, are likewise useful when well coordinated with the classroom work. No amount of merely passive receiving can take the place of study on the part of the child. Of all the visual aids the stereoscopic pictures are perhaps the most useful, since they furnish the third dimension and give time for long-continued and careful observation.

Strangely enough, there is a paucity of literature for teachers on methods of teaching the class in educational and vocational information. The *Manual For Teachers,*[1] although it is designed to accompany one particular textbook, contains much material valuable to all teachers. Valuable suggestions for teachers have been published by state departments of education in New York and Pennsylvania and occasional articles are available. A more comprehensive and extensive treatment of the class in occupations is, however, greatly needed.

PREPARATION OF TEACHERS

On the academic side the teaching of occupations is fully as technical as the work of teaching algebra or Latin. Not only should the teacher be well-informed as to subject matter, at least to the extent of knowing how to find his way to and among the several sources, but he should also have instruction in a course designed to give methods in teaching occupational information and labor problems. It is desirable, too, that the teacher have some experience in other standard subjects of the curriculum, since he will necessarily have to deal with other teachers in the educational and vocational counseling which will grow out of his classroom work.

But special training in occupational information is not easy to get. There are few adequate training courses: at the present time not more than a dozen teachers' colleges and schools of education seriously endeavor to teach the necessary subject matter and method in any manner comparable to preparation for teaching mathematics, science, English, and other standard subjects. Consequently the prospective

[1] Lincoln, M. E., *Manual for Teachers. See* Bibliography.

teacher himself is thrown back on self-education and needs the guidance of older workers in the field to plan his career.

On the practical side there is less difficulty. Obviously, teachers of classes in occupations can profit in a special way by their own experiences in vocational life. And contact with occupational life in these days is not difficult to obtain. Christmas vacations, summer vacations, and after-school time may sometimes be used, and a teacher of energy and imagination can make up for past lacks by securing some experience in many callings, from driving a hayrake or hoeing corn to selling goods and taking care of stock. These occupational experiences should, if possible, be distributed among the several large continents of occupational service, agriculture, industry, commerce, and the professions. Work in social service organizations is also important for the background of the teacher. Scout work, family welfare effort, summer camps, relief enterprises, or other opportunities, particularly if contacts with homes are involved, will aid the prospective teacher in preparing for the work, or supplement and improve the abilities of the teacher already in service.

It is inevitable that the teacher of the class in occupations shall find himself also a counselor. Questions are raised in class which bring to the surface problems of the individual and these problems are brought into private conferences with the teacher as counselor. This leads some students of vocational guidance to the conclusion that for the work of vocational guidance a combination of teaching occupational information and of counseling is desirable.

The personal qualities of the teacher should be those of any other good instructor. He should have versatility and resourcefulness and ability to lead a discussion and to develop friendliness toward and among children.

Several cities and at least two states have drawn up specifications for teacher-counselors, with prescribed and suggested courses for preparation, examinations, and certification.

All of the foregoing proposals are well established in the practice of many cities, though we cannot yet point to one

city which is doing the work in a manner to satisfy every need. The efforts are too new for that.

It will be clear that the work should not be left to home-room teachers, who are essentially, of course, subject teachers assigned the extra work of shepherding one particular group of children. The home-room teacher may occasionally do well, but usually his interests are elsewhere. Some schools have done a fair job of educational guidance through them, by freeing one counselor to retrain all the other teachers and furnish them illustrative materials; but the training of them all for vocational information would be a wasteful and exceedingly difficult task, and the teaching would be as unevenly done as if we should ask every teacher to teach algebra.

The once-a-week class is particularly inadequate, so much so that its difficulties may discredit the work. It is difficult to get continuity, acquaintance with pupils, effort outside the class, the friendly contacts among the children necessary for free discussions, and adequate time for the appropriate subject matter.

Some courses called vocational information fall into the error of mixing too many subjects together. For instance, one of these, according to its outlines, is evidently designed to help children brush up on grammar, fortify their ethical principles, care for their health, improve spelling and punctuation, be good sports, succeed in life, use libraries correctly, understand electricity and mechanics, and write a good business letter. This illustrative material contains matter lifted from various published texts, without the slightest indication of its source. Such irregularities, the product of unguided enthusiasm, are to be expected in a few instances, but they need correction.

What should the elementary school do with occupational information? In at least one large American school system the junior high school curricula are differentiated at the seventh grade; this imposes the burden of choice upon sixth-grade pupils. Needless to say, they are not and cannot be prepared for such a decision, but the logic of the situation would dictate intensive guidance for that year. While such

specialized guidance should not be required until later, there is every reason for helping children beginning with kindergarten to understand the workers, all about them, to see the social services involved in work, to know something of the various kinds of occupations, and to see that there are problems such as pay, hours, steady work, supervision, preparation, cooperation, responsibility, and the like. Pittsburgh has recently issued a comprehensive outline for guidance work in elementary schools.

The outcomes from the study of vocational information are as follows: boys and girls who understand something of the responsibilities and opportunities of work and are able to make their way with credit to themselves and helpfulness to society; citizens who understand the larger problems of vocational life, those requiring cooperation for their solution and sometimes government action, and who are equipped with the desire, experience, and skill needed for such cooperation.

ILLUSTRATIVE MATERIAL

In educational guidance, handbooks for freshmen have become very common. These are used by hundreds of junior and senior high schools throughout the country and they vary from the dignified statement of rules and regulations and curriculum opportunities to the book written by students, containing cheers, athletic records, explanations of student activities, and the like. These booklets are likely to be useful in proportion to their completeness and to their employment in actual classes for educational guidance. If the school has an appropriate educational vestibule where the new pupils are shepherded, tested, and advised, and in which they are given information about the school and its opportunities, these booklets may well be used as the first textbook. Also they may be used by the teacher in the last class in each school, to help prepare the pupils for the school to which they are being promoted. If they are not used in classes, they are not likely to have much effect. The conscientious students who need them least will read them carefully, the drifters

will glance at them, while the backward students will probaby be more confused than helped.

The same observations might be made about directions issued by the faculty containing lists of studies and curricula. No faculty should feel that the guidance problem is solved by the issuing of such books, since lecturing and pamphlets are both inadequate methods for real educational purposes.

Any new movement like that for teaching occupational information leads to an effort to provide outlines, illustrative material, lesson plans, and textbooks. The material sent in response to the questionnaire used for this study is varied, voluminous, and uneven in value. Some cities have issued booklets which merely sketch in outline form the topics with which the course deals. Others put out a series of questions, while others elaborate their lessons almost to the point of the technique of a textbook, giving information, assigning exercises, and providing questions for discussions.

Typical of the best of these illustrative materials may be noted the following:

Springfield, Massachusetts, has a mimeographed book of 166 pages of lesson plans in educational and vocational guidance. The lessons on applying for a job, obligations to employers, what an employer wants to know about an employee, holding a job, and securing a promotion are particularly helpful, combining factual material of an interesting kind with challenging questions.

Winston-Salem, North Carolina, has a mimeographed book addressed to teachers with lessons and cases for conference discussion.

Boston, and Washington, D. C., have small pamphlets for teachers outlining the scope of the work.

Baltimore has a paper-covered book of 166 pages for the work in junior high schools alone.

South Bend, Indiana, has mimeographed booklets with lesson material for junior high school children and an outline of the advisory plan for the senior high school.

Atlanta, Georgia, has a mimeographed booklet of 30 pages for the junior high school work.

New Haven, Connecticut, has outlines and extensive lesson plans for the junior high school on topics concerned with several kinds of guidance.

Providence, Rhode Island, has mimeographed outlines for vocational guidance in the junior high school including analyses of occupations.

Cleveland, Ohio, has a manual for home-room teachers and a lesson plan book for pupils based on the job-sheet idea with blanks to be filled in by pupils.

Detroit has lesson plans in *Planning Your Future* and *Finding Your Place* in two separate printed pamphlets.

These are but a few samples of the many pieces of work which industrious teachers have produced. It must be noted, however, that many of the lesson plans are on the whole rather poor. With the increase in the number of textbooks, there seems to be no necessity for continuing in every city to work out a mere elaboration of what has already been done better in these texts or in the best of the lesson plans in the more progressive cities. An enormous amount of time and energy will be saved and the work better done through cooperation among the cities, by an authoritative collection of material through the National Vocational Guidance Association, or by the use of the best among the textbooks.

In an earlier section the literature on occupations collected through careful investigations and published for use in specific cities, is discussed. Aside from printed materials based on local investigations there are many books both for teachers and for pupils which set forth a description of the occupational world or which guide teachers in teaching classes in occupations. A selected number of these are included in the Bibliography.

RECOMMENDATIONS

1. As a measure actuated by regard for child protection and welfare, curriculum study of occupational information is required.

2. Classes for such a study should be carefully organized, with approved textbooks and methods, and should be placed at strategic points where educational and vocational decisions are about to be made.

3. Such classes should place less emphasis on the learning of facts than on teaching pupils methods of occupational analysis and self-analysis that may develop in them the confirmed habit of analyzing occupational problems as they arise in their lives.

4. Such classes should also aim to equip pupils with vocational enlightenment usable for solving the larger economic and social problems connected with occupational life.

5. Guidance for success in the educational career is likewise required: learning how to study, information on opportunities ahead, guidance on choice of studies, curriculum, school, and college.

6. Preview courses are needed for the purpose of enabling the pupil to sample the various studies, and to try out his interests and abilities.

7. Tryout courses in occupational samplings are needed for the discovery of ability and interest leading to choice of vocation and vocational preparation. These courses should provide for each pupil the opportunity to explore elementary exercises in the tools, materials, and processes of agriculture, industry, business, and home making, and contacts with professional callings should be provided.

8. Clubs, student government, and student activities generally should be utilized for the discovery and exploration of abilities.

9. Studies of local opportunities and specialties in occupations should be made and published; such studies should

be coordinated and collated by a central agency like the National Vocational Guidance Association or the Children's Bureau, in order to avoid duplication, and to make material available for smaller communities.

10. Those who teach curriculum work in guidance, whether teachers or counselors, should have had special preparation for the work, and should possess experience in occupations other than teaching.

11. Curriculum work in guidance should be adequately sponsored and supervised, and should be coordinated with other features of the guidance program, such as counseling, testing, placement, and follow-up.

INDIVIDUALIZED OPPORTUNITIES FOR TRAINING FOR AN OCCUPATION

INDIVIDUALIZED OPPORTUNITIES FOR TRAINING FOR AN OCCUPATION

THE NEED FOR VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

EVERY individual capable of engaging in productive work needs specific training for occupational life. This need has been greatly emphasized in recent years by the increasing numbers of people to be assimilated in vocational life—almost two million become eighteen each year; by the ever widening range of occupations to be considered by the individual looking forward to productive life and promotional opportunities; and by rapid changes in the occupations in practically all fields of work. Furthermore, the complexity of present-day business and industrial organization, and the increasing demands for accuracy, speed, and adaptability put new emphasis upon vocational preparation for every worker and for occupations of every level. David Snedden says: "Operatives in all kinds of factories, locomotive engineers, housewives, sailors, soldiers, farm laborers, postal clerks—all these and thousands besides may be expected to precede their entry upon full-time wage earning by some very direct and positive vocational training during the months or years just preceding the assumption of that work; and, after beginning wage earning, they will in continuation, evening, or other type of extension school continue their education toward high forms of vocational competency." [1]

CHANGING CONDITIONS

Changes in methods of production and distribution in recent years have greatly affected demands upon the worker's skill and time. The increased mechanization of industrial

[1] Snedden, D., *Vocational Education,* p. 19. *See* Bibliography.

processes and perfection of machine performance, the more effective coordination of manufacturing processes and more efficient methods of management which have increased production and at the same time decreased the number of workers, have created problems for industrial workers that have had much attention. But within the past decade similar changes have affected types of work once considered thought processes and therefore quite immune to the invasion of mechanical inventions.

The billing machine, tabulator, and bookkeeping machine have brought about an entire reorganization of office occupations. The automatic telephone has displaced thousands of workers and transformed an elaborate system of training in one form of communication, and the automatic telegraph has brought similar changes in another branch of the same industry. The self-serve restaurant has changed food preparation and service, thus affecting the work of both the waitress and the cook, and the self-serve grocery is making similar transformations for those who sell foods. Power-driven machines are making changes in farming which have led economists to aver that farming will soon experience division of labor comparable with that obtaining in industry. Electricity has taken possession of the home refrigerator, the kitchen stove, the washing-machine, the ironer, and many small appliances; and housekeeping for hosts of women has become a problem of management instead of a ceaseless round of manual labor. The moving-picture camera and the talking picture are remaking the actor's profession. The radio is being used to give instruction on a large scale and its introduction into the schoolroom already suggests changes in methods of instruction and the teacher's part in the instruction process. The use of machines and power is actually established in practically every manner of work.

The manner of distributing goods is changing probably more rapidly than the making of things. The introduction of the automobile has not only created a vast industry, employing many thousands of workers, but has changed every form of transportation. The privately owned car and the

passenger bus have greatly expanded the area of employment. The truck conveying goods of all sorts has changed merchandising in practically every field. Commodities are conveyed to stores daily and stores once centralized are now being located where people live. The airplane has also introduced a number of occupations scarcely known a decade or two ago and the speed of the air service is making its impression upon business transactions.

Moreover, change in personnel in many types of work indicates that occupational life is already taking cognizance of mechanical inventions, improved methods of management, and of new social conceptions. Young men are being given preference over older men because they are considered more adaptable; and in these days they can enter employment trained, at a more mature age, and readily qualify for adult work. Women are being employed in increasing numbers. The home, no longer an economic center of production, makes greater demands upon the family income in higher standards of living and lengthened period of education for all members of the family group. Women are accepting their share of the cost of these services by their contributions to the family income.

These few illustrations indicate in no uncertain terms that changes in production and distribution of commodities, in standards and methods of living, not only transform what workers actually do but emphasize the fact that change in itself is a most important factor at all times in determining the occupation the worker may anticipate, the method of performing the work, and the continuity of his employment.

CHANGED CONCEPTIONS OF CHILD LIFE

Not only have transformations been accomplished in the making of things in recent years but conceptions of child life have been profoundly changed in the same period. Once the property of his parents, even to the extent that his father could contract for his time and wage, the child has become an individual having rights of his own which parents and

others in authority must consider. State wardship, established in law as well as in theory by compulsory school attendance laws, child labor regulations, and other legal restrictions, is lengthening the period of childhood and securing for children the benefits of play, opportunities for continued education, and the protection necessary for normal physical growth. Acceptance of this principle has completely reversed the position of the child in the past few decades.

Power-driven machines, to be fed by anyone, put a premium upon child labor for a time, and simplicity of operation threatened to entrench the idea that the increase in automatic machinery would increase the use of child operatives. But the extreme liability of young workers to accident [1] emphasized by all investigators and the high accident rate reported in accident statistics give ample evidence that power-driven machines, though efficient, do not furnish desirable work for young people, however simple the process may be. Improvement in management and increased coordination of productive and service processes have shown that young workers, even in these simple machine operations, require more supervision than adults and that the combined wage of supervisors and child operators tends to be higher than that of mature persons in similar work. The recognition of these facts has gradually broken down the theory that low-paid child labor is cheap labor.

Industry has improved conditions for the protection of workers, and in a number of states youths under sixteen or eighteen years have been eliminated from workshops where accident hazards exist and older workers are being given preference in employments once held by young people. Along with this reversal in employment policy employers have come to realize that general education, training for an occupation, and the maturity of the individual are working assets even in types of work dominated by power-driven machinery which seem to make relatively little demand upon the

[1] Hazardous Occupations, Industrial Accidents, and Workmen's Compensation for Minors are covered in the report of the Subcommittee on Child Labor III D.

initiative, judgment, knowledge, and skill of the worker. The growing conviction that too early employment, except for motivation and appreciation of the work done by others, shortens productive life by limiting the individual's chances for an education, and interferes with personal development and occupational outlook, has reversed the attitude toward the child as a potential worker.

CHILDREN'S RIGHTS RECOGNIZED

Public playgrounds, the longer school term, the increase in the number of schools, and the great increase in the proportion of young people in the upper grades and secondary schools, brought about by the higher compulsory school attendance requirement, are evidence of belief in wholesome play and extended education as factors in the normal growth and development of all young people. Though these ideas are less well established in some communities and in some sections of the country than in others and are more fully accepted by some groups of people than others, they are symbols of the nation's interpretation of child life and children's rights. Preparation for satisfactory entrance into an occupation and additional training for advancement and change of work when desirable or necessary readily fall within this national acceptance of the rights of the child.

There is still the problem of the retarded boys and girls, who, because of low or slow mentality, or physical handicaps, illness, indifference of parents, or interrupted school attendance, fail to attain high school status and perforce enter employment with limited schooling and with no preparation for work of any kind. Charles Scott Berry refers to the education of this group as "no man's land" in education. He says: "Our colleges, our universities, and our technical schools are for those who are above the average; but what special educational provision have we made for those who are below the average? They have not even had a fair chance to make the most of their limited possibilities. They find

themselves doubly handicapped in a world constructed for average and superior individuals." [1]

MACHINES AND CHANGED TECHNIQUES

So long as mechanization affected industry alone, it could be censured for making inroads upon skill and breaking down personal relationships between the employer and the worker or it could be disregarded because it left other, and presumably more important, fields unaffected. It is apparent now, however, that machines will be used increasingly to lighten work in every field of endeavor and that greater coordination of processes and improved methods of management will be developed to facilitate service in the handling of goods and dealing with people. These trends are too evident to be overlooked and their significance is too vital to experienced and prospective workers to be disregarded in any educational program whether in a school or in the place of employment. Educators have been very slow to recognize these trends as they affect the worker, the training of prospective workers, or the worker in need of additional technical training required for advancement.

It is evident that advancing the school attendance requirements and limiting employment to sixteen or to eighteen years in certain kinds of work as in many states, emphasize not only the need for training for a vocation preceding entrance to employment, but also preparation for promotions and added responsibilities that come along more rapidly to the more mature entrant. It is also evident that training programs must take into account business and industrial changes and a great range of occupations as they actually are, by keeping abreast of current practices; and occupations as they are tending to be, by providing for instruction beyond that required for entrance to the occupation; and a shift to another occupation, by additional training or retraining when conditions make transfer necessary. These changes in methods, techniques, and trends in occupations that affect the

[1] Berry, C. S. *No Man's Land. See* Bibliography.

worker must be recognized and given reality in instruction and training if the conceptions of child life, built up in the past quarter of a century, are to be conserved during school life and used effectively in vocational activities when the transition from school to work is made.

Meeting these needs in a scheme of education suited to all types of young people over fourteen years of age and at every school level above the primary grades; providing the variety of training courses needed to enable each individual to find his place in one of a wide range of occupations, many of them changing in less than a single lifetime; and directing the individual in present situations and conserving his adaptability for future changes, is a complicated problem. This, with its many ramifications, is the problem of vocational education and vocational guidance.

MEETING THE NEED FOR VOCATIONAL PREPARATION

Although much has been said about the loss in training sustained by the passing of the home as an industrial unit and the old form of apprenticeship as a means of training, it is only within very recent times that the actual breakdown of old established training systems has been recognized. Practical courses, such as home economics and manual training during the early years, were frequently carried on in the schools on the theory that young people could be educated back to the home and its former highly coordinated responsibilities, and back to the trade and the intimate personal contacts of master and apprentice dependent upon each other for product and income. These ideas have passed.

The home and family group is utilizing with increasing effectiveness the services which the new industrial order has brought within its reach. Opportunities for education through travel, radio, club activities, and reading have been materially advanced as leisure in the home has increased. Much of the training, however, for many of the activities of the home in recent years is being given in the schools. All of the training for occupations followed outside the home has been shifted to the schools or relegated to the workshops.

The old apprenticeship with personal relations between master and worker maintained throughout the training period has likewise passed; and it is only within recent years and in widely scattered areas, as Wisconsin, California, New York, and Michigan, and for relatively few lines of work, that apprenticeship training suited to modern conditions has been attempted by industry, by the schools, or by industries and schools combined. Learning the occupations by trial and error and by *stealing a trade* has been common practice in many occupations because the workers found no alternative.

Present Means of Training

The transition from old forms of training to new ones in keeping with modern economic and social conditions has been going on steadily during the past decades. Vocational courses are offered in every state at the present time, some of them under private auspices but an increasing number under public direction. Private schools supported by tuition fees or philanthropy provide such training in many places. Apprenticeship courses sponsored by the industry, by the trade unions, or by the public schools, industry and the unions cooperating, provide opportunity for training in certain lines of work. Corporation schools organized within the store or industrial plant and cooperative schools in which the industries, stores, and offices share responsibility for the education of young workers, offer training in a number of communities. Vocational courses in the curricula of the public schools which include provisions for agricultural occupations, home making, trade and industrial occupations, and commercial occupations, have been extended rapidly in the past decade. The aims and accomplishments of these schools are discussed briefly here.

Training in Private Vocational Schools

Private vocational schools include the profit-making schools, such as trade schools, beauty-culture schools, commercial colleges, and correspondence schools maintained by

tuition fees; and non-profit-making schools supported by philanthropic contributions and bequests. These schools offer courses in a great range of subjects and apparently provide for pupils of widely varying general education and occupational outlook. School attainment ranges from the fifth grade to college, and courses provide for trades, business occupations, and a scattering of technical and semi-professional callings.

Schools operated for profit offer many courses of a vocational nature, as the names of the schools indicate. Others, particularly the correspondence schools, offer general courses though vocational courses predominate. Private commercial schools offer typewriting, stenography, bookkeeping, and secretarial work; the trade schools—courses for plumbers, welders, auto mechanics, machine design, toolmaking, dressmaking, and other trades; barber, beauty and hairdressing schools—courses in personal service occupations; accountancy schools—courses for auditors, public accountants, and secretaries.

Correspondence schools present long lists of courses in various trades, commercial subjects, and academic subjects. A study of the correspondence schools made in 1926 reported "two hundred or more courses offered by these schools with approximately 80 per cent of all students in vocational courses. The subjects most frequently mentioned were connected with professional, manufacturing, and mechanical occupations." [1]

In a recent study of private trade and endowed industrial schools in the United States [2] 207 day, evening, and boarding schools, 31 corporation schools and 16 correspondence schools and home-study courses are described briefly. At least one school of the types included in the study is found in every state except Wyoming, Maine, Vermont, Nevada, and Arizona. New York has 24, Massachusetts 21, Illinois and Pennsylvania each 19 of these schools.

[1] Noffsinger, J. S. *Correspondence Schools, Lyceums, Chautauquas.* *See* Bibliography.

[2] Proffit, M. *Private and Endowed Schools.* *See* Bibliography.

Considerably more than half of these day, evening, and boarding schools, 133, charge tuition which fully or partially defrays expenses, as, for example, the engineering and technical non-collegiate schools; others, such as the Berry School, Berea, Tuskegee, charge nominal tuition or living expense which supplements income from other sources. Those remaining are endowed schools, as Girard College, Mooseheart National Home and Training School, Dunwoody Institute, Lewis Institute, Lux Industrial School, and schools maintained by church or other organizations or by private contributions from other sources.

Philanthropic Schools

While a number of these philanthropic schools were organized as boarding homes for dependent and partially dependent children, many of them have offered vocational instruction for some time. The first vocational instruction in a number of these schools centered about the trades and home activities of the institution, but later, ventures were made in lines of work not necessarily applicable to the life in the institution. Some of these schools did real pioneer work in demonstrating that manual work of many sorts could be taught successfully and in so doing made contributions to educational theory and policy which the public schools later recognized. Other institutions have secured vocational training for their pupils in the adjacent public schools, when available, in the belief that these children should share community life as other children do and be ready for occupations and employment at the expiration of the term in the institution. Such schools for younger pupils as Girard College for boys, Carson College for girls, Mooseheart National Home and Training School for boys and girls, the Berry School, Hampton Institute and Tuskegee Institute for colored, and Haskell Institute for Indian boys and girls, and such schools for adults as Pratt Institute, Rochester Mechanics Institute, Armour Institute and similar institutions, are well known to

educators and laymen for their service to young people as well as for their contributions to education.

Contributions of Private and Philanthropic Schools

Some of these private trade and commercial schools have pioneered in vocational education. Through their efforts subject matter which the public schools ignored for many years or failed to recognize as valid educational material either for its content or its contribution to vocational competency has been organized and made available to many young people and adults who otherwise would not have received vocational instruction of any sort. The commercial subjects, bookkeeping, typewriting, and stenography, were developed in private commercial schools during the period in which college preparation wholly dominated the public secondary schools, and were not given a place in the high school curriculum until practical aims had gained a recognized place in educational theory. Apparently the trades and service occupations are passing through a period of similar difficulty.

The people who patronize profit-making private schools pursue the courses for the definite vocational preparation and increased earning power they expect to obtain from the instruction. The fact that many of them are adults striving for improvement in both general education and vocational preparation is convincing evidence of a conscious need which was not met by the schools in earlier years.

It has long been a tenet of education that it is essentially a public responsibility precluding in essence the making of profit. While this principle cannot be applied literally to all education it can be applied to all fields of education. Training for a vocation is no exception to this rule.

Private schools wholly or partially supported by philanthropy have served and continue to serve a real need in areas not adequately provided with public schools. Except for these private schools the young people in the communi-

ties in which they are located would be without any form of vocational instruction.

Criticism of the private schools that fall below acceptable standards is directed mainly at lack of standardization of courses, meager content of courses offered, ineffective teaching methods, and in some instances low educational and professional qualifications in the teaching personnel. The fact that a number of the schools are not checked up by the state school inspectors and that teaching is not directed by qualified supervisors probably makes it difficult, if not impossible, to maintain the standards set for schools under public supervision.

That the training in some private institutions has measured up to accepted standards is evidenced by the fact that work has been approved and made part of the public educational program and has qualified for state and federal funds. Others have succeeded in giving a measure of service in raising the social and economic life of the section of the country to which the pupils belong, and continue as philanthropic schools. The existence of private vocational schools unquestionably indicates a need for vocational preparation on the part of many young people and adults.

Apprenticeship, Corporation, and Cooperative Schools

Apprenticeship in unionized trades as in the printing trades; apprenticeship sponsored by the unions, the employers, and the public schools as in the building trades; training in employment in corporation schools as in certain electrical trades and in department stores; and cooperative schools which combine working experience and instruction in general and related subjects in one program, present training opportunities here and there.

The printing trades for many years have maintained a printing school of national reputation and an apprenticeship system with a definite plan of training.[1] The building trades

[1] United Typothetae of America, School of Printing, established 1906 in connection with Winona Institute; in 1910 under the control and management of the United Typothetae of America; in 1927 the Typothetae Educational

THE PHYSICIAN AND THE ADVISER FOR THE HANDICAPPED CONFER CONCERNING THE PHYSICAL REHABILITATION OF AN APPLICANT FOR PLACEMENT

in recent years have sponsored an apprenticeship plan in cooperation with the schools and the trade unions, usually with a board representing these interests in charge of the instruction programs and placement of apprentices. Cleveland has attempted this plan on a city-wide basis.[1]

Training departments in the leading electrical manufacturing industries have been maintained as corporation schools for some years. Public utility electric power companies train practically all their installation and maintenance men in apprentice schools which they organize and maintain.

Certain lines of government work offer apprenticeship opportunities. The government printing department maintains an apprenticeship system for the training of printers, bookbinders, and other occupations in the printing trades for those who enter that form of government service. The navy provides apprenticeship training for men who enter the trades used in the building and maintenance of ships and for service at sea. The railway companies and the brotherhoods provide apprenticeship training for men employed in the building and maintenance of railroads and for the occupations connected with transportation.

With the exception of apprenticeship in government occupations and in the public utilities which give continuous service, the training schemes sponsored by the workers and employers fluctuate as prosperity or depression affects production and the consequent demand for workers; hence they tend to lack the stability essential for effective training. Untrained workers are tempted to accept the higher wages offered for unskilled work in prosperous times, and employers curtail or discontinue training in times of depression in order to effect economies. Uncertainty in these forms of training unquestionably discourages many boys who could profit by this form of vocational preparation, and the relatively high entrance age, eighteen years in many trades, makes them impracticable for others.

Foundation at the Carnegie Institute of Technology, Pittsburgh, Pa. *American Printer,* Oct., 1930, pp. 48–49.

[1] Struck, F. T. *Methods and Teaching Problems in Industrial Education,* p. 139. *See* Bibliography.

Apparently training of this type requires the help of legal regulation and public supervision, as in Wisconsin, or established cooperative relations between employers, workers, and the public schools, as in Cincinnati, to insure the stability essential for adequate instruction. Supervision which will bring about desirable standardization of courses, improvement of instruction, and continuity in these forms of training are equally essential. Since employers, in the long run, derive profit from this specialized training, a consistent working plan for equalizing its heavy cost should be evolved.

Character Building Institutions

Other public institutions not tax supported which have contributed to vocational education are the Young Men's Christian Association and the Young Women's Christian Association. These institutions fostered commercial courses, trade and technical courses, home economics and practical arts courses in their early years and shared materially in the task of securing recognition for them in the curricula of the public schools. The Knights of Columbus, the League of Catholic Women, and the Young Men's and Young Women's Hebrew Associations have likewise influenced these programs in recent years.

Public Vocational Schools

Public vocational schools represent a relatively new movement in public education. Massachusetts provided for "independent industrial schools" in 1906, and other states made provisions for public vocational schools in the years immediately following. Such schools as the Manhattan Trade School established in 1902 and the Boston Trade School in 1904 were organized under private auspices and taken into the public school systems of their respective cities before laws were passed providing for such schools. The Smith-Hughes Act, passed in 1917, which provided for day, evening, and part-time vocational schools in agriculture, trade and industry, and home economics has given considerable im-

petus throughout the country to types of vocational education begun in private vocational institutions.

Training in one or more of the many specialties in agriculture and general farming is offered extensively in agricultural courses in high schools or by the extension services of the state agricultural colleges and the farm bureaus. Enrolments in 1930 in agricultural courses receiving state and federal aid were 188,311 in day, evening, and part-time schools.[1] Many others received instruction through the farm bureau extension courses and radio programs broadcast by agricultural colleges and farm bureaus throughout the year. It is estimated that the number entering farming occupations each year is two hundred thousand. While the number enrolled in vocational agricultural courses approximates this figure, the number of persons entering farming with training, or with training in view, is only a fraction of this total since the figures quoted include evening and often short courses in which adults usually predominate.

One of the features of agricultural courses is a great diversity of short courses, such as chicken raising, feeding stock, and a host of others intended for experienced farmers. The 4-H clubs organized and directed by departments of agriculture contribute materially to the program for younger people, and perhaps in time, with organized work outside the school and greater provision for agricultural courses in the schools, this field will be more adequately provided for than it is at present. Agriculture seems to lend itself to varied types of instruction more readily than other specialized occupations.

Training for a few skilled trades supported in part by federal and state funds is available in many of the larger cities. In 1930 there were 68,318 boys and 10,790 girls enrolled in day trade courses, 161,432 men and 10,343 women in evening and industrial courses, and 37,650 men and 9,943 women in trade extension courses. These totals, though large, probably represent a smaller proportion of workers entering the industries each year than those entering

[1] Federal Board for Vocational Education, *Annual Report 1930,* pp. 82–85.

agricultural occupations. This is particularly apparent in the numbers of girls and women in trade and industrial courses. Vocational courses for this large group are usually limited to the sewing trades, commercial courses, and cooking. Although types of courses vary with the lines of work to be done there still are many trade and industrial occupations in which training not now provided would contribute to workers' efficiency and thereby increase opportunities for earning an adequate income over a period of years.

Training for home making is offered extensively in practically every school system. In classes receiving state and federal aid in 1930 there were 100,878 girls enrolled in vocational home economics in day classes and 105,838 women in evening and 31,039 girls in part-time classes.[1] Workers in this field of vocational education state that there are more than two million girls of secondary school age who need preparation for the occupation of home making and suggest that a like number of boys also need training for this major responsibility. Parental education sponsored by home economics teachers, which has become an important part of adult education, has had an important place in these courses in recent years.

Preparation for commercial occupations is available in practically all public school systems either in a commercial curriculum of the general high school or in a high school devoted wholly to commercial education. These courses make a wide appeal, according to recent reports. The United States Office of Education states that "approximately 25 per cent of the pupils enrolled in secondary schools are taking commercial courses—a number totaling more than all other vocational curricula combined." [2] Evening school and private school enrolments in commercial courses, if available, would greatly increase this total.

Other vocational courses not always among those receiving state and federal aid are also available in some communities. Nursing, commercial art, interior decorating, dress

[1] *Ibid.*, pp. 82–83.

[2] Malott, J. O. *Commercial Education in 1924–1926. See* Bibliography.

designing, selling of real estate, hairdressing, and many other specialized courses are offered in the larger cities. The continuation schools in 27 states [1] provide opportunity for work and study combined for those employed in occupations for which little vocational preparation is required. These schools also provide home-making courses for girls. In 1930 the enrolment of boys in these schools was 167,761 and of girls 166,788.

Vocational Schools Reflect Local Conditions

An interesting feature of vocational education, as the movement gains way in the public schools, is that types of schools reflect local conditions and outlook. Some schools offer trades only, as for example the Worcester Trade School for Boys. The Connecticut State Trade Schools serve the young people of the entire state. The Essex County, New Jersey, Trade School serves an entire county. Buffalo has trade schools offering different trades in various sections of the city. The Cincinnati Unit Trade Schools emphasize the importance of differentiated courses by establishing separate organization units for each trade offered. The Frances Nicholls Industrial School of New Orleans reflects the educational outlook of that section. Others offer trades and commercial curricula in the same school, as, for example, the Minneapolis Vocational High School, the Theodore Ahrens Vocational School, Louisville, Kentucky, and the Wiggins Trade School, Los Angeles. The vocational school which includes trades and commercial curricula, and commercial art courses, indicates an attempt to meet the vocational requirements of groups with varying needs. Home making is offered as a general course in practically all of the vocational schools for girls and as a vocational course with its own curriculum in

[1] Arizona, California, Connecticut,[a] Delaware, Florida, Illinois, Indiana,[a] Iowa, Kentucky,[a] Maine,[a] Massachusetts, Michigan, Missouri, Nebraska, Nevada, New Jersey, New Mexico, New York, Ohio, Oklahoma, Oregon, Pennsylvania, Tennessee,[a] Utah, Washington,[b] West Virginia, Wisconsin.

[a] No provision for localities where schools must be established.
[b] No compulsory provision for localities in which continuation schools must be established.

many of the trade and vocational schools throughout the country.

Greater diversity of courses offered in private and public schools and increased enrolments seem to indicate abundant opportunity and ready acceptance of training provided. But thus far vocational schools have limited instruction in the main to a few skilled trades, commercial occupations already well established, and to agriculture and home making. Along with this custom there has been a tendency to raise the entrance requirements of the vocational school to the completion of the eighth grade, a standard which many young people fail to attain. It is apparent that a much wider range of occupations must be included in these schools if they are to meet the needs of pupils of widely varying abilities and interests.

A type of school of lower grade than the trade schools and commercial schools for those who cannot qualify for skilled trades and business occupations is urgently needed. This school should be maintained for the types of occupations in which these young folks invariably find a place and for the achievement levels of which they are capable. As wards of the state they are entitled to preparation for self-support and an opportunity to contribute to the social order as their endowments permit. Without preparation for occupational life, these young people often create problems which make them both a social and an economic liability.

Publications and Radio Aid

Other means of spreading information of a vocational education nature developed in recent years are to be found in the columns of the daily press, current magazines, and in state and government bulletins. Business papers dealing with particular fields of industry, and house organs issued by employers, especially those carrying educational columns, reading lists, and accounts of industrial and business conditions for employees' information, are contributing materially to the education of the workers. The daily papers and

women's magazines offer helpful material for the homemaker, which the radio now broadcasts during housekeeping hours. Government bulletins constitute another source of information concerning many phases of agriculture, home economics, and industrial problems. These publications, available free or at very low cost to every one, have put certain types of vocational information within the reach of every citizen desiring it. Recently government information service concerning markets, crops, weather conditions, has been extended by daily radio reports.

Clubs Contribute

Clubs representing many vocational fields are contributing to vocational education in some measure. The 4-H clubs for farm boys and girls are fostering a variety of vocational interests centering about farm life, and home projects are giving reality to the objectives of these enterprises. Extracurricular clubs in the schools are attempting to capitalize the special interests of pupils through subject matter clubs, such as chemistry club, nature study club, and activity clubs, such as drama club, camera club, aviation club, for motivation in school work and discovery of vocational potentialities. Bringing occupational information to the individual and putting certain experiences into the leisure time make these activities particularly valuable to young people who like to exercise freedom in the choice of a vocation, and serve as aids to those lacking preferences who need time to deliberate over the possibilities before them.

Cooperation Necessary

The vocational activities reviewed briefly in the foregoing pages reflect the influence of mechanical inventions upon every life experience and call persistent attention to the fact that the educative process goes on outside the school as well as in the classroom and that preparation for a vocation has as definite connection with the school and school life

as with the office, the workshop, or the home. Preparation for the vocation must be forward-looking, except as the past contributes historical and technical background and knowledge of old methods vitalizes modern current practices. Training must be organized, economical, and effective if entrance to full-time wage-earning is deferred to eighteen years as many persons advocate. Young people expect quite rightfully that additional schooling will equip them for their chosen occupations and that their employment and earning potentialities will be materially enhanced by greater maturity and training. Those institutions concerned with the welfare of the individual and those benefiting by the service the individual renders as a worker and a citizen need to be brought into harmonious working relationships in order that the individual may secure without loss of energy, time, or purposeful endeavor the satisfactory preparation for living to which he is entitled.

Robert Leonard, late director of the School of Education, Teachers College, Columbia University, in an address at William and Mary College in 1926 said:

> In Colonial days industry welcomed youths for what they would be; in the days of exploitation, youths were welcomed for what they could produce; in the days of regulated labor, youths were welcomed only if they were cheaper, and then were regarded as a nuisance; but in the days of need, society will find the type of work for youth that will combine education and vocational ambition. It will claim for the education of youth all the facilities of the community—the homes, parents, teachers, schools, employers, and churches. The devotion of parents alone will fail; the intelligence of teachers alone will not suceed; the facilities of the working world alone will only bungle; but all working together toward a common objective may win.[1]

WASTE OF PRESENT METHODS

The many training plans briefly cited indicate a considerable diversity in vocational training already established. Although they bulk large in the aggregate many of these

[1] Leonard, R. J. *An Outlook on Education. See* Bibliography.

courses are so scattered that a mere fraction of the young people needing the training are reached. There is still great need for instruction for young people in smaller communities and isolated sections, and until these children are provided for, the waste in undeveloped talents, in earning power and in the satisfaction of achievement will be great.

There are other elements of waste to be considered, though often these are not so apparent as the neglect of individuals out of reach of training. Failure to recognize family traditions that force choice or put pressure upon immediate earnings rather than the future prospects of the worker, lack of consideration for the social outlook of the learner, disregard of racial considerations that affect employment, undue subordination of the learner to the demands of the job, and lack of thoroughness in training, have made many attempts in vocational education wasteful of the individual's talents, time, and effort. David Snedden says:[1] "There are hundreds if not actually thousands of callings for which the present methods of vocational by-education, unorganized, incidental, haphazard, are woefully inadequate either for the good of the individual or the good of society."

Inadequate Interpretation of Practical Courses

Probably the most serious hindrance to the development of adequate vocational training has been the school's failure to interpret the practical courses to parents and pupils satisfactorily. The aims of general and vocational education are not sufficiently differentiated in the curricula. In some instances it is the policy not to differentiate lest the practical courses appeal too strongly to the pupils and decrease their interest in the academic subjects. Pupils are frequently not directed to vocational courses until failure in academic subjects has forced a change in program. In other instances shop courses are used to discipline behavior cases. Such use

[1] Snedden, D. *Vocational Education,* p. 19. *See* Bibliography.

of vocational courses undoubtedly tends to discourage deliberate choice of vocational courses by many pupils whom the courses are expected to benefit, because they hesitate to be identified with the problem group.

Although many educators believe that such practical courses as cabinet making, dressmaking, automobile mechanics, chicken raising, raising a crop of potatoes, contribute to the learning process, the manner and extent of their educational functioning have not yet been evaluated in a way comparable to the results obtained in intelligence and achievement tests used for the academic subjects. Some mechanical tests have been developed but others are needed to validate the learning process of the pupil actively interested and participating in the making of things and the operating of machines.

Although study of occupations is bringing more adequate information about occupations, many teachers still know too little about them. They frequently give inaccurate information or, still more unfortunate, compare one occupation with another unfavorably and unfairly and so mislead their pupils by their own prejudices. While much of this effort is intended to stimulate pupils to aspire to the higher occupations some of it is flagrantly wrong.

Parents Fail to Help Children

Parents often contribute to this waste by their indifference to their children's needs and their failure to recognize their abilities, or, if ambitious for them, they overestimate the significance of childish activities or preferences. Others put undue emphasis upon income and urge employment which gives immediate money return. Still others emphasize occupations that promise advancement in the social scale or put pressure on a child to enter an occupation that carries on a family tradition, though neither inclination nor talent may warrant it. Some parents arbitrarily choose an occupation for their child and consummate plans without considering his preferences or fitness. Another common error is

failure to recognize the rate of development of the child, its significance in his adjustment to the requirements of the school, and its effect upon his immediate and future vocational outlook.

The Child's Early Problems

Some of these problems undoubtedly have their beginnings during the individual's school life. Parents frequently overlook their children's needs and aspirations or postpone attention to them. Until recent years, educators have not realized that preparation for living, the accepted interpretation of education, includes preparation for vocational fitness, which is a very important element in successful living. "Fitting people to get a living is one part of fitting them to live," [1] according to Thorndike and Gates. Early recognition of this principle would protect many children during school years and go far to give them a sense of security in mature life.

Training spread over a longer period than is necessary to achieve command of content and skills is another form of waste. Dissatisfaction that results from this form of exploitation, sometimes in the schools and sometimes in apprenticeship, often seriously discourages the individual and handicaps his progress. In other instances, because of inadequate vocational information, counsel, and occupational tryout, workers are trained for occupations for which they are not fitted, and maladjustment brings a quota of difficulties which have to be corrected if any degree of vocational success is to be expected.

Subordination of the person in training to the demands of the job frequently occurs in employment. Pseudo-training such as some establishments attempt, the ineffective training which some of the commercial colleges and private trade schools give to pupils seeking a short cut to an occupation, or meager aid in correspondence courses for which the pupil

[1] Thorndike, E. L. and Gates, A. L. *Elementary Principles of Education.* *See* Bibliography.

must do his work alone, result in lack of that thoroughness of training which vocational success requires.

Labor turnover, so common among workers untrained before entering employment and unadjusted to their occupations after they are employed, has revealed much social waste readily identified among the unemployed and unemployable and an economic loss readily measured in hiring and firing costs.

Social and Economic Maladjustment

Perhaps the greatest loss, though not always measurable, is the social and economic maladjustment of the individual and its effect upon his morale as a worker and a citizen. As an untrained worker he takes any occupation that offers itself and his lack of training tends to justify the *laissez-faire* policy of many employers. If he is a pseudo-trained worker he is disillusioned at the employment office, which takes little, if any, account of his attempts to qualify for a job, and the breakdown of his sense of obligation for fitness for the job he desires is completed in the workroom. The result is that he bluffs or pirates upon his fellow workmen and failure ending in dismissal finally overtakes him. Repetition of these experiences readily establishes a circle of difficulties from which the worker finds it hard to extricate himself.

It can readily be seen that negative conditions in the school, indifference of the parents, and lack of training, give the individual a poor start in occupational life. It is also evident that a wrong start materially affects the adjustments the individual must make during his early working experience if not throughout his entire wage-earning life.

PUBLIC RESPONSIBILITY

That acceptance of public responsibility for education had its inception in the foundations of American government is evidenced by the fact that before the adoption of the Constitution Congress by ordinance of May 20, 1785, "prepared

the way for the advance of settlements and education as contemporaneous interests." [1] This ordinance directed the reservation of certain public lands for public school purposes and the sale of other lands for their maintenance. This early act was sustained by the ordinance of 1787 in which Congress declared, "Religion, morality, and knowledge being necessary to good government and the happiness of mankind, schools and the means of education shall forever be encouraged." [2] These early grants were made for common schools and later grants provided similarly for the support of normal schools, seminaries, and universities.

Early Grants

The Morrill Act signed by Abraham Lincoln in 1862, which set aside "land for the endowment, support and maintenance of at least one college where the leading object shall be . . . to teach such branches of learning as are related to agriculture and the mechanic arts . . . in order to promote liberal and practical education of the industrial classes in the several pursuits and professions in life," [3] applied this principle of governmental support to practical education. The Hatch Act, the Second Morrill Act, the Adams Act, the Nelson Amendment, the Smith-Lever Act, the Purnell Act, and the Capper-Ketcham Act have extended the services of these colleges to the farms and farm homes by furnishing consultation and instruction for the farmer needing help with crops, cattle, and poultry, and the farm women concerned with the problems of the farm household and the preparation and marketing of produce which frequently becomes her share of the farm labor and her source of income.

Tuskegee Normal and Industrial Institute, established by similar grant, provides both agricultural and industrial

[1] Keesecker, W. W. *Digest of Legislation Providing Federal Subsidies for Education. See* Bibliography.

[2] *Ibid.*, p. 2.

[3] *Ibid.*, pp. 25–31.

training for colored boys and girls. Schools for the handicapped, such as the deaf, dumb, and blind, have also received federal grants, and schools of mines and scientific schools have received special grants. Reformatory and penal institutions have long had grants for the purpose of training men and women for occupational competency when returned to civil status.

The Federal Vocational Act

In February, 1917, the Smith-Hughes Act made provisions for federal cooperation with the states in promoting education in agriculture, trades, home economics, and industrial subjects of less than college grade, thus applying the principle of public responsibility for preparing youth for their vocations. Further legislation has extended similar provisions to the handicapped through the Smith-Fess Act in 1920, and additional grants were awarded for agricultural and home economics education through the George-Reed Act in 1928. Federal and state cooperation in the forms of education provided by these acts has been secured by requiring each state using federal funds for vocational education to contribute an equal amount for the activities for which the act provides.

The states and the territory of Hawaii accepted these provisions for vocational education by passing enabling acts and assuming responsibility for the development and administration of their programs. Since the passage of the Smith-Hughes Act these schools have multiplied and the spread of vocational courses has been greatly increased.

Stimulation of Public Aid

The fact that the enrolment in all-day, evening, and part-time vocational schools has passed the million mark indicates acceptance of the need for preparation for a vocation by the public schools and the young people who attend them. Voluntary enactment by twenty-eight states of per-

missive or mandatory laws providing for part-time school attendance four to eight hours each week for employed boys and girls under sixteen or seventeen years of age indicates that public opinion concerning induction into working life is being crystallized into law by public action.

Another evidence of popular acceptance of the need for vocational preparation is shown by the private grants in the form of bequests, endowments, and special grants by foundations for vocational schools made in the past decade or two. The Davis Hale Fanning Trade School, the Theodore Ahrens Vocational School, the Isaac Delgado Trade School, Dunwoody Institute, the David Rankin School of St. Louis, to mention a few, have received bequests and grants within the years in which public approval has had its greatest impetus.

More Responsibility for Workers

Increased responsibility for workers in business and industry has been manifested in recent years by the development of personnel departments, corporation schools, and cooperative educational plans. Although personnel service in its initial stages was concerned mainly with the reduction of labor turnover at the hiring and firing points, the personnel director found that discriminating placement involved more than merely selecting workers to fill the day's requisitions and that firing could readily be reduced by equally careful transfer of the worker to another department in the same plant.

The establishment of schools and training departments in business and industrial establishments is another indication of industry's responsibility for workers and the quality of the work they do. The development of training for workers in the lower levels of employment, as well as those in supervisory positions, indicates interest in trained workers as an element in morale and efficient production. These ventures in training rank and file workers bear out the theory

enunciated by Prosser and Allen that "some intelligence is needed in every kind of work." [1]

Examples of these forms of training commonly designated as corporation schools or training departments are to be found in the manufacture of electrical equipment, paper, soap, shoes, hosiery, and other commodities, and in the hotel and restaurant industry, department stores, and telephone service.

Cooperative part-time education in which industry and the public school provide an alternation of work and instruction has increased within recent years. A report of the Federal Board for Vocational Education [2] lists classes in 78 centers in 21 states in more than 32 special industrial occupations enrolling 5,682 students. While these classes often reflect the fluctuations of economic conditions the fact that they persist indicates that the employers desire a supply of trained workers and recognize their share of responsibility for training and employing them.

The growing tendency in the better business and industrial establishments to encourage their employees' attendance at evening classes as a means of preparing for promotion is another indication of increased interest in employees and their personal development and occupational advancement. Banks, department stores, public service corporations, and chain stores, are among the institutions that have recognized continued study as an important factor in employment and progression. Recognition of the gains to be made by attendance in the part-time schools from which many workers transfer to the evening school as the next step in advancement is also evidence of increased responsibility for workers during the transition from youth to maturity.

Acceptance in Educational Theory

Recognition of the value of preparation for a vocation as purposing and motivating the educative process, and of

[1] Prosser, C. A. and Allen, C. R., *Vocational Education in a Democracy.* *See* Bibliography.

[2] Federal Board for Vocational Education. *Cooperative Part-time Education.* Industrial Series, Bulletin 130, 1928.

its importance in fitting the individual for productive life and citizenship, have long had a place in educational theory. John Dewey says: "An occupation is the only thing which balances the destructive capacity of an individual with his social service—a right occupation means that the aptitudes of a person are in adequate play, working with the minimum of friction and the maximum of satisfaction." [1] And again: "There is increased esteem in democratic communities of whatever has to do with manual labor, commercial occupations and the rendering of tangible services to society." He also points out the fact that: "The great increase in the social importance of conspicuous industrial processes has inevitably brought to the front questions having to do with the relationship of schooling to industrial life. . . . Since Industry for the great masses is less of an educative resource than in the days of hand production," he says, "the burden of realizing the intellectual possibilities inhering in work is thus thrown back on the school." [2]

Inglis, writing more than a decade ago on the principles of secondary education, proposed three fundamental aims for the secondary schools: the social-civic aim, the economic-vocational aim, and the avocational aim.[3]

Of the economic-vocational aim he says: "Society makes its demands on every individual to at least pull 'his own load'," and further: "So universal a necessity cannot be neglected by the schools unless it can be shown that other social agencies are equal to the task," and since they "do not accomplish such preparation adequately—the responsibility falls upon the school. With the extension of the benefits of the secondary education . . . to young people of the non-professional classes greater importance has necessarily been attached to the economic-vocational aim. Because of the wide range of occupations and the lack of uniformity of their demands upon workers the economic-vocational aims

[1] Dewey, J. *Democracy and Education,* p. 360. *See* Bibliography.
[2] *Ibid.,* pp. 366–368.
[3] Inglis, A. *Principles of Secondary Education,* pp. 368–371. *See* Bibliography.

will be difficult to attain but that is no justification for neglecting them in the secondary schools."

Bobbitt in his early book, *The Curriculum,* says: "The schools should deal with every normal child and youth on the theory that, when adulthood is reached, he must earn his living." While he recognizes undesirable features of many occupations he calls attention to the fact that most of these conditions are not inherent in the occupations but that many of them—notably long hours, unsanitary conditions, undue ugliness, low wages—can and should be improved through general enlightenment. "To admit that much labor is debased and debasing is not an excuse for faltering before the task of vocational training. It is the presence of imperfections in the labor field that justify the ameliorative labors of education . . . that make the need for vigorous occupational education essential . . . thereby making the door to any useful occupation a door of opportunity." [1]

Goodwin Watson in a recent article on the modern high school predicts a high school that definitely aims to meet the needs of adolescents, with a new set of departments one of which will be a department of vocations. This department, he says, "would include units which have direct bearing on the part of the pupil's work in the world—for most pupils this would surely include supervised participation in some jobs. Other units would call the present economic order up for examination." [2]

Thorndike and Gates in a recent publication say that "so numerous are vocations today and so specialized the preparation for them that vocational guidance and . . . vocational preparation becomes a necessary part of school education." In advocating more than general knowledge of present economic conditions the authors say: "Up to the present time the worker has been asked to fit himself to the job . . . or . . . workers with aptness for a task have been selected and trained." They doubt "if any men are

[1] Bobbitt, F. *The Curriculum,* pp. 55–57, 63. *See* Bibliography.
[2] Watson, G. "What is a Modern High School?" *See* Bibliography.

fitted to withstand great heat, air pressure, extreme expenditure of energy. Such tasks should be changed to fit human needs and capacities. Since industrial changes are to be made in a democracy *by* the people as well as *for* them comprehensive education of the masses is essential." [1]

In commenting upon the progress of education along vocational lines Cubberley says: "An outstanding feature has been the recognition that it is a task too big and too important for the school alone and the willingness of business and industry to cooperate in the work. Employers appreciate the importance of general training, wider skills and better attitudes toward work which the school gives to the workers." He also adds: "The cost for providing this training is now being recognized as a public charge fully as just and proper as is cultural or professional education." [2]

It is unquestioned that rapid progress is being made today in the acceptance of vocational training as a valuable part of education. But it must be admitted that there is still a large group of people who look somewhat askance at vocational education, regarding it as the type of education for people in the lower portion of the social scale. This is the traditional point of view, a holdover from the time when secondary education was only for those who planned to enter college to prepare for professional careers. Some teachers, even, still think that vocational education is good only for their poorest students. It *is* good for them; but in some individually adapted form, it is also good for the largest majority of our school population. Vocational scholarships may yet be as honorably won as academic scholarships.

Acceptance in Social Philosophy

Preparation for vocational fitness is a means of establishing standards of living and economic independence. It is

[1] Thorndike, E. L. and Gates A. L. *Elementary Principles of Education,* pp. 36–37. *See* Bibliography.

[2] Cubberley, E. P. *An Introduction to Education and Teaching,* pp. 27–28. *See* Bibliography.

a means of protection from poverty and its attendant ills. Within recent times the vocation has come to be regarded as a most important factor in maintaining mental health and desirable social attitudes. Richard Cabot places work with play, love, and worship as the four essential elements of living and regards their interplay as the end of life. He sees in a good job "a challenge which no other life activity offers." Doctor Cabot measures a good job by seven points: "(1) Difficulty and crudeness enough to call out latent powers of mastery. (2) Variety so balanced by monotony as to suit the individual's needs. (3) A boss. (4) A chance to achieve. (5) A title and place of one's own. (6) Connection with some institution or firm which we can serve loyally. (7) Honorable and pleasant relations with one's comrades in work. If these conditions are all fulfilled, work then is one of the best things in life." [1]

Other Responsibilities

This brief résumé of the extent to which responsibility for vocational education is recognized and accepted by educators, business men, industrial leaders, and sociologists indicates considerable progress in the philosophy of the movement and a measure of success in initiating training courses. There is still need, however, for the establishment of underlying principles which will articulate general or liberal and vocational education effectively and command the support of all persons and interests concerned with the education of youth.

The establishment of recognized points of articulation between general education and vocational preparation, with the working out of plans that will make it possible for an individual to extend his command of the liberal subjects as ability determines and to develop his vocational skills and knowledge as talents and potentialities warrant, is an immediate need. Since the leadership in vocational education is

[1] Cabot, R. *What Men Live By,* pp. 27–28. *See* Bibliography.

to be the responsibility of the public schools, the problem of formulating underlying principles and establishing adequate programs and effective methods of instruction rests primarily upon educators concerned with public education. There is sufficient evidence to indicate that parents, business men, industrial leaders, sociologists, and laymen, will give their support to education that fits youth for efficient living and effective citizenship.

EFFICIENT PLANS FOR VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

It is apparent from the discussion of the progress of vocational education thus far and the problems which still confront the movement that there is need for continued work in building up a comprehensive program which is readily understood by educators, pupils, parents, and employers, and adequately supported by public approval.

Comprehensive and efficient plans for vocational education must include certain definite features if training is to meet the needs of young people who will work in their home communities or prepare them for vocations to be followed elsewhere, should their chosen work take them into other localities. Since the leadership is vested mainly in the public schools, it is expected that the vocational schools and classes wherever maintained will share the benefits that accrue to all schools within the state and local public school systems.

It is taken for granted that provisions will be made for an adequate health program, for recreation, athletics, and extracurricular activities in the vocational schools and that pupils will participate in these activities for personal benefit and cooperation with others as befits their ages and interests. It is also assumed that vocational instruction will foster interest in continued education for general cultural purposes as well as for vocational advancement. While it is the definite responsibility and obligation of the vocational school to train young people in the skills of their chosen occupations, to teach the appropriate subject matter, and the working re-

lationships and privileges to be maintained, it is expected that the elements of citizenship other than successful pursuit of the vocation will be fostered by cultural instruction in the vocational curricula and that reading will be encouraged according to individual needs, capacities, and interests.

In adhering to the principle that public vocational schools will share the benefits provided for all public schools within the state it is assumed that buildings and equipment will be suited to the requirements of the vocations offered and that instruction will be planned to meet the practices in current use in business and industry.

Essentials of an Efficient Plan

An efficient plan for vocational education includes:

Recognized and satisfactory articulation with the elementary and secondary schools in order that pupils may be transferred to the vocational courses or schools satisfactorily.

Provisions for discovering individual needs, potentialities, and aspirations before entering a vocational course, and adequate information and guidance during preparation.

Varying and adequate programs for many occupations with organization of instructional material and length of training period determined by the requirements of the occupation and the capacities of the individual.

Flexibility of organization that will permit of vocational training periods of the varying lengths needed for vocations of varying content and skill requirements, and supervision of boys and girls combining schooling and employment by a cooperative or continuation school plan.

Provision for instruction in the subject matter of a given vocation as well as the skills required for the deliberate purpose of developing vocational efficiency.

Provisions for studying the individual with reference to vocational capacities, interests, and achievement as well as mental capacities.

A staff of workers qualified for the various types of instruction, adequately prepared for counseling and guidance that functions, sufficiently trained in sociology and qualified to deal with the sociological aspects of a school in a complex community, and trained for the difficult and exacting task of analyzing occupations, keeping abreast of trade, industrial and agricultural demands, and changes that affect the workers' jobs and their methods of work.

Provisions for local and state supervision that will stimulate and inspire the workers engaged in the immediate tasks of dealing with the pupils in school and at work.

Adequate financial support for all types of vocational education and for occupations of every level.

Intelligent community cooperation which includes parents, employers, social workers, and school authorities.

General vs. Vocational Education

Adequate provision for satisfactory articulation between the elementary and secondary schools and the vocational schools is a matter of school policy to be determined, in the main, by school administrators and teachers. The adoption of a transfer policy based on the interests, preferences, and social outlook of the pupils should take the place of the negative policy of transfer as penalty for failure, misbehavior, or low grades. It is an established principle of the medical profession to prevent ills, as far as possible. The efforts of physicians to reduce illness have been rewarded many fold. It is the ambition of sociologists to train men and women to help themselves so that, in time, they may become independent of social aid. It should be the policy of the schools to transfer pupils from one type of course or school to another with the intention of preventing educational

troubles and maladjustments which, in later years, sociologists and doctors are asked to cure.

This articulation is not merely a matter of age and grade completed, as is often implied. The great range of occupations to be considered and the wide diversity in requirements necessarily create need for transfer at many points if individual needs are to be met effectively. Over-age slow boys and girls obviously need to change from general to vocational courses when the school expectancy period is known to be limited. Other transfers will occur all along the line, some taking place in a lateral direction, as, for instance, transfer from first-year high school to the commercial school or the trade school or the continuation school. Other transfers occur upon the completion of the course which the school provides. Many school administrators and teachers still refer to the change from a grade or high school as *dismissal* and entry to the trade school or the continuation school as *readmission*. The invariable question to these young people when they appear in the new school, "Why did you leave the high school?" is evidence of an attitude not in accord with an adequate transfer system. Pupils do not *leave* school until they have passed beyond the age for which school attendance is required by law.

Individual Differences

The significance of individual differences in the learning process and achievement of young people has long been established in educational theory and is used increasingly as a guiding principle in curriculum making and in grouping pupils for instruction. Although far-reaching in its effects, in its application to academic standing and achievement, the fact that individuals differ in vocational preferences or aptitudes has not been adequately recognized.

Individual needs and outlook are conditioned also by family and environmental influences that cannot be overlooked in a modern American school in which people of many nationalities share the benefits of public education.

The fact that family traditions and nationality characteristics play their part in determining whether the son shall be a mechanic or a musician and the daughter a typist or a seamstress, calls for considerable knowledge of the sociological background of the pupils with whom the teachers deal, and sympathetic interest in their problems.

Varying Programs Needed

There is need for differentiated vocational curricula for pupils of a wider range of abilities and aptitudes than the schools now provide for. An adequate program of vocational education must take cognizance of differences in vocational outlook and the variations in mental equipment which young people display, and devise methods of putting individuals in the way of doing the work they are most likely to profit by and enjoy. Obviously there is need for experimentation in these important matters. A progressive vocational school takes account of these needs. Teachers attempt to discover pupils' potentialities and needs, diagnose situations which they have to meet, and effect necessary adjustments. The specialized continuation schools and vocational adjustment classes in New York in which boys and girls are prepared to be operatives in simple types of work are examples of recent experiments in fitting pupils of low intelligence for lower level occupations which they enter. Experiments of a similar nature with many types of work and with pupils of varying intelligence and aptitudes are necessary if any degree of progress is to be made in preparing young people for occupational life effectively.

Flexible Organization Essential

A feature of the vocational school or vocational courses in a high school which is apparently difficult to accept in theory and practice is the necessity for courses of unequal length and an organization sufficiently flexible to admit pupils at frequent intervals and permit them to enter em-

ployment when they are ready and places are available. The trade schools have used this plan successfully for many years and many commercial schools operate on a similar basis. The increasing tendency to exercise supervision over employed boys and girls under eighteen during working hours makes this form of organization more workable than seems apparent to teachers and administrators used to the traditional organization which limited school activities and responsibilities to the four walls of the building.

It is essential that adjustment of this sort be provided if vocational preparation for the many occupations people follow is to be given and the many types of people who enter them are to receive instruction commensurate with the content and skills to be mastered. Padding the curriculum with non-essential subjects or spreading out the vocational subject matter and activities to fit administrative convenience defeats the purposes for which vocational courses are organized, discourages pupils who desire training that will qualify them for employment, and disappoints parents who look to the training as a means of establishing their children in desirable careers.

Administrative and Teaching Personnel

It can readily be seen that the flexible organization and the varied curriculum needs of the vocational schools call for a staff of workers with qualifications not, as a rule, maintained for teachers in the general academic schools. It is essential that the principal of the vocational school or the head of the vocational department have an understanding of the aims and purposes of vocational education, comprehension of the social and economic needs of the young people who attend these schools, and an insight into community problems that affect the school and the outlook of the pupils. Principal, teachers, counselors, coordinators, and social service workers connected with the school in any capacity unquestionably need to have command of elementary principles of sociology and economics. Some states have included these subjects in requirements for certification.

Knowledge of the subject or the vocation to be taught, with actual experience in the occupation to establish the essential skills and familiarity with usage are, of course, minimum essentials. This actual participation in an occupation as an employed worker is such an important factor in interpreting occupations and conditions of work that teachers of the social sciences, English, mathematics, and such related subjects as drawing, chemistry, and design, as well as teachers of the vocations, are often required to have such experience in order to qualify as teachers in the vocational schools.

Vocational schools in common with all others presuppose a staff of workers who have sufficient general education to insure perspective in current affairs and contemporary life and intelligent understanding of the aims and methods of the grades and secondary schools from which the vocational pupils are transferred. Seeing the vocation as a whole and the individual possessed of a vocation as a unit requires both educational and vocational perspective which education and experience develop. The personality of the men and women who come in contact with young people is generally recognized as a most important factor in stimulating them to a realization of their capacities and the development of the desirable qualities they possess. The teacher of a trade or a type of service to be rendered should possess the highest ideals of the occupation he represents.

It is essential that vocational teachers be qualified in modern teaching methods and in the standard practices of the occupations they teach. These qualifications require not only preparation and experience before responsibility is assumed in the schools but continued study and experience to keep knowledge and skills in step with changes in techniques, methods, policy, and philosophy which occur in education and practical affairs with considerable rapidity. Efficient plans, according to Wright and Allen of the Federal Board for Vocational Education,[1] include "definite provision for the improvement of personnel."

A most important item in establishing teaching stand-

[1] Wright, J. C. and Allen, C. R. *Efficiency in Vocational Education,* p. 174. *See* Bibliography.

ards and a superior teaching personnel in vocational education is the establishment of professional status commensurate with training and experience required and service rendered. All states have minimum requirements for these teachers, though training programs indicate considerable diversity in courses offered. A more adequate program for the selection and professional training of those who teach and administer vocational education is needed as day, evening, and part-time vocational schools are extended and their programs and methods increasingly become exacting.

Supervision of Vocational Education

Local and state supervision to develop and direct the policies of vocational education and stimulate and inspire the men and women who give them reality in classrooms and workshops is provided to some extent in all states, cities, and in rural communities. Although the supervisory staff is necessarily determined by the volume of work to be done and the cost of such service, it is obvious that special types of activity require the services of specialists qualified to pass judgment on programs, methods, and accomplishments and to recommend changes and improvements consistent with the progress of vocational education. This part of the vocational movement needs to be strengthened and extended.

RESEARCH

Provisions should be made for research in all types and all phases of vocational education. The sheer fact that methods of work are constantly being transformed, occupations changed, and conditions of employment altered indicates the necessity for constant scrutiny of programs and methods and careful research for the discovery of new plans in order to keep pace with changing conditions and practices. There is need also for study of aptitudes and experimentation in types of work suited to individuals of given abilities and interests and the types of work they may do with profit and

satisfaction. A department of research in a large school system, or research projects by the teaching staff in smaller schools which cannot maintain a staff to organize, direct, and evaluate experiments, not only examines what is being done, tests its value, and evolves new plans but develops the habit of constructive criticism of methods and results.

By drawing into the various research projects from time to time teachers and counselors not primarily responsible for such study, the whole staff can be imbued with the spirit of discovery of new, and improvement of the known, features of vocational work. Analysis of occupations and specific jobs challenges every alert vocational teacher. Study of individual pupils, of home and community conditions presents other problems to be worked out and this experience in turn develops working techniques. Communities that are evidencing accomplishment in vocational education are continually surveying occupations so as to make vocational training as nearly consonant with facts and tendencies as possible.

Financial Support

Adequate financial support of vocational education is, of course, essential. Federal and state aid provided by the Smith-Hughes law supplements local funds for vocational schools. Many communities with this aid have found it possible to initiate vocational instruction. Others have absorbed their share of these funds in schools already established and have extended local appropriations as the work developed. There are still many small communities and remote districts, however, which need the help of these funds and professional assistance in the task of initiating vocational courses. Local programs depend upon the support of local authorities, the interest and ingenuity of the teaching staff, and the confidence of both in the aims of vocational education and the young people who profit by it. Increasing the funds from local sources contributes to the development of a sense of responsibility for the program used in the schools

and directs attention to the young people served in the vocational courses.

Community Cooperation

Perhaps the most significant fact about vocational education is that it cannot be accomplished by the schools alone, though leadership for it is increasingly placed upon the schools "for the very good reason," according to Thorndike and Gates, "that the school is becoming increasingly superior to other agencies in discharging the obligation." [1] Many of the obligations connected with the problem of preparing young people for their occupations, assisting them in making a place for themselves among other workers, and contributing to their advancement, requires the active interest and aid of parents, employers, teachers, counselors, and social workers who come in contact with young people. In addition to approval of the work and progress of the vocational schools, real cooperation requires familiarity with the local program, the policies which determine its scope, and the principles upon which vocational education is based. Perhaps the most effective way of creating an abiding interest in the significance of vocational education and its place in the social order is to make available to all persons and interests involved the principles upon which this part of public education is based. It is possible to put before all of these groups simple statements of principles and evidence to support them which professional people, business men, and parents can interpret and accept.

George E. Myers says: "A school system should be expected to go as far in providing vocational preparation as it goes in maintaining general education. There is no more obligation resting upon the community to provide general education on a certain level than to provide vocational education on the same level. Indeed the one who wishes the latter and is prepared to profit by it, is quite as justified in

[1] Thorndike, E. L. and Gates, A. L. *Elementary Principles of Education*, p. 36. *See* Bibliography.

demanding such education of the school system as the one who wishes the former is justified in demanding it." [1] Educators, employers, and parents are accepting this view in principle and, increasingly, in practice.

When all persons and agencies responsible for the development of vocational education, adequate guidance, placement, and follow-up realize the part they can and do play in demanding vocational preparation for young people and development and maintenance of the program, the vocational schools and guidance departments will be used for all forms of adjustment in occupational life, for additional training that will bring the next job within reach, and for the development of an outlook which reaches well into adult life. Sustained cooperation of those immediately concerned with the outcomes of education will do much to develop an adequate program and command the support of social workers, recreation leaders, and workers in character building organizations indirectly concerned with the problem. It is increasingly being borne in upon every one concerned in any way with the well-being of young people that an occupation is not only a means of getting a living. It is a manner of living.

SUMMARY OF NEEDS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The most pressing problem of education is how to meet the universal need of all boys and girls for vocational preparation.

Acknowledgment that this need is as urgent for those who occupy minor positions and render humble service as for those who direct or control large enterprises or serve in high places is the next step in the development of adequate vocational education for all young people. Every individual needs preparation for his vocation, which is to be a means of service, a method of exercising his creative abilities, a way of sharing responsibility, and a means of securing income for himself and dependents. Work, a place of one's own, is a

[1] Myers, G. E. *The Problem of Vocational Guidance. See* Bibliography.

badge of citizenship and service to the state. The public or society as a whole should assume the responsibility for seeing that adequate vocational preparation is provided for young people, and society's established agency—the public school system—should have the leadership in discharging this obligation.

It is generally accepted that the most effective method of securing to every child the protection and training which are his right is through the extension of legislation requiring the attendance of children at school upon either a full-time or a part-time basis until the age of eighteen. Such legislation should not be interpreted as requiring the child to attend school but as compelling administrators of education to provide for the child an opportunity to attend a school suited to his needs and purposes. Since preparation for a vocation is a dominant need, extension, improvements, and new ventures in all forms of vocational education are recommended.

The Problem

The need for vocational preparation exists in every community. It is to be expected, therefore, that provisions will be made in all school systems for this essential feature of preparation for living.

In assuming the leadership in vocational education it is necessary that administrators of public education take into account the fact that some vocational preparation can best be given in the school before employment begins, some partly in school and partly in employment, and some wholly in employment, and that plans will provide for training suited to the individual's needs and the occupation he expects to enter.

Vocational education is interpreted to include the adjustment of the worker to the social and economic conditions surrounding the occupation for which preparation is provided, as well as the acquisition of manipulative skills and technical knowledge required in the occupation.

Plans for vocational education should take into account such important matters as:

The growing mechanization of processes long established in industrial lines of work and now rapidly invading

business and professional occupations, as it affects the manner in which work is to be done as well as product to be made or service rendered.

The effects of new inventions and discoveries on established occupations and on the development of new occupations.

The changes in legislation delaying entrance to employment and lengthening the period of compulsory school attendance; and the consequent obligation to provide a type of education which will compensate for the deferred wage earning which many young people keenly desire.

The relation of employers and of labor organizations to the problem of preparation for entrance into occupations and satisfactory pursuit of them after employment begins.

The demand for labor in the occupations for which the schools are offering vocational courses so as to guard against overcrowding occupations for which a full supply of workers is available.

Provisions for Pupils' Needs

Recognition of individual differences, already well established in general education, should be made a basic principle in plans for vocational instruction. To insure this the following measures are necessary:

Provision should be made for all levels of ability and, within the group usually designated as average, for at least three levels: low average, middle average, and high average.

Different types of aptitudes and varying vocational interests should be provided for.

Health standards should be maintained in occupational activities and attention given to such matters as stature, physical development, eyesight, which often affect the individual's opportunity for employment.

Due consideration should be given to the many occupations from which individuals of different aptitudes and abilities may select and for which they may be trained either in the school or, if beyond compulsory school attendance age, in the place of employment.

Adequate vocational guidance should be given before vocational preparation begins in order that waste involved

in preparation for occupations unsuited to individual capacities and needs may be avoided.

Plans for vocational preparation should include adequate provision for experiences closely comparable to those which the individual will have as an employed worker or actual experience in the occupation under supervision.

Proper follow-up after employment is essential in order that the young person may obtain the best training possible from his working environment and from evening classes and correspondence courses in which he continues his education after entering full-time employment.

In training young people for and directing them into occupations for which they are best suited, teachers and counselors should encourage them to assume their responsibilities with a sense of pride in the mastery of skills to be used and the service to be rendered, in order that they may be assured of their rightful heritage of joy in work and pride in good workmanship.

Extension of Vocational Courses

Agricultural courses should be extended for boys and girls in rural areas who expect to enter agricultural pursuits; and adequate vocational information and training also, when possible, should be provided for those who are interested in, and ultimately may enter, types of work not connected with farm life.

Attention should be given to the occupational and social needs of young people entering the highly mechanized occupations in the industries, by providing additional education and vocational preparation which will assist them to advance when they find themselves in types of work that do not provide for advancement in occupational status or give security in earning power.

Instruction in the responsibilities of the home should be included in the vocational training of boys and girls, as preparation for the important vocation of adult life and as a contribution to citizenship.

Courses in commercial subjects, industrial subjects, agricultural subjects, and home-making subjects now established in the public schools should be definitely differentiated as to

general education aims and vocational preparation aims, in order that parents and their children may know the results that should accrue from courses planned specifically for vocational preparation and those intended to supplement the general education courses.

Since women and girls are entering wage-earning occupations in increasing numbers and finding employment in many more occupations than in former years, more adequate provision should be made in the schools for vocational courses which will fit them for the many wage-earning callings in which they render substantial economic service.

Whenever possible and practicable apprenticeship for boys entering the skilled trades should be organized and adequate working relationships between apprentices, employers, and the schools maintained for the purpose of encouraging the spirit of craftsmanship among young workers and retaining skilled trades for which there is demand.

The cooperative plan for vocational preparation should be utilized for pupils who are interested in and stimulated by instruction which combines employment and schooling. While the predominating factor in a child's life up to eighteen is education and play rather than wage earning, the schools, the home, and the employer should seek to capitalize in the total education of the child the educational potentialities in work. All parties to the cooperative plan gain, most of all the child, who profits by the extension of the educative and protective influence of school in his early working years.

Additional Types of Schools

It is taken for granted that the types of vocational education already provided in the colleges, technical schools, high schools, and vocational schools will be enlarged and strengthened as study of the problems of vocational education points the way to improvement, and that the vocational offerings in these schools will be materially extended as time goes on. There is need, apparently, for more flexible secondary curricula and more generous recognition of the educative values to be obtained from vocational studies and

working experience if these schools are to provide any appreciable amount of vocational preparation.

Schools for slow and retarded children who do not complete a secondary school course are urgently needed. The lack of training which would prepare these young people for the simple types of work in which they will ultimately find employment and safeguard them from exploitation, dependency, or delinquency, is a dark spot in the program at the present time. Schools for these children should forego the eighth-grade entrance requirement and provide many types of occupational activities in the school. The more able of these pupils, even though one or two years over-age, may be promoted to a trade or technical school if they qualify. Others should be coached for the types of work they can do and placed in occupations in which they can render acceptable service. These schools should not be confused with schools for the feeble-minded, nor should they be regarded as a substitute for trade schools or commercial schools intended for pupils in the upper half or third of the group having records of average ability and attainment.

A suitable organization for the continuation schools to take the place of the traditional organization to which many continuation schools have resorted is greatly needed. The continuation school should aim definitely to help young workers meet their personal and employment problems, develop ability to use books as aids in their work, re-establish interest in reading as a source of general information and recreation, point the way to the many forms of adult education for their mature years and encourage them to return to the school for advice and assistance after they have passed beyond the years of compulsory school attendance. Individual differences evident in social background, vocational aptitudes, and school attainment make individualized instruction essential in these schools if the occupational potentialities and aspirations of these pupils are to be conserved and developed satisfactorily.

Evening schools are patronized increasingly by young men and women seeking advancement in their vocations and additional general education. Provision should be made for articulating instruction in the day vocational and continuation schools with the courses offered in the evening schools

in order that young people may continue their studies without interruption when they so desire.

Attention should be given to adult education for the contributions made to child health and protection by the increased earnings of the breadwinner and the greater efficiency of the homemaker.

State and federal aid for vocational schools throughout the states has done much to increase the number of vocational schools, extend the scope of their work, and improve the quality of vocational instruction. During the early years the larger cities having a vocational program, and smaller communities ready to undertake such a program but lacking adequate funds, were immediately benefited by this financial aid. These funds increasingly should serve the more remote and scattered communities, and individual pupils when necessary, and thus equalize the opportunities of vocational preparation.

Administration Problems

An organization and administration of public education which sees vocational education in proper perspective and provides for all phases of it without prejudice should be established in each community.

Provision should be made for research in all types of vocational education. Communities which are evidencing high accomplishment in vocational education are continually surveying the occupations, discovering vocational needs and requirements, analyzing specific fields of occupational endeavor, interpreting trends of growth and deterioration, and anticipating new occupations in order that the vocational training offered may be as nearly consonant with facts and tendencies as possible.

A more adequate program for the selection and professional training of those who teach and administer vocational education is needed. Since real accomplishment in all levels of vocational education rests largely upon the quality of the instruction, the states should improve their training programs so as to insure a vocational staff fully qualified by richness of personality, breadth of experience, and completeness of professional preparation.

Supervisors for each of the types of vocational educa-

tion—agricultural, commercial, home making, industrial, and so forth—should be provided in the states in order to develop adequately the training offered in each field and to extend the work of making vocational preparation available to young people in remote areas.

The contributions of non-public agencies, such as philanthropic schools, corporation schools, correspondence schools, and certain private commercial and trade schools, to the solution of the problem of vocational education should be recognized and utilized when they can best serve the needs of young people.

State supervision of non-public vocational schools should be provided in order to prevent exploitation of youth by unscrupulous private vocational schools and to protect schools which are performing a real service to vocational education.

JUNIOR EMPLOYMENT SERVICE

JUNIOR EMPLOYMENT SERVICE

ORGANIZATION AND EXTENT

JUNIOR employment service, which merits a place in a vocational guidance program, is an activity more meaningful and more constructive than often is conceived, even by some who are engaged in it. Working experiences of youth have always been considered immensely formative, and the processes of securing work, carrying it on, and progressing in it, a test of character. To carry on an employment service designed to aid boys and girls demands, even more than adult employment, a high quality of skill and a high degree of social consciousness, that it may make the richest contribution to the individual and to society.

Where Conducted

Many people engage in junior placement, individually, in private organizations, and publicly. Some do it well. Some junior placement is done by commercial agencies—profit-making bureaus whose primary task is adult employment. This particular group is omitted here, since its junior employment work is rarely in any way adequate. The placement done by private commercial schools will also be eliminated from the discussion, for in most cases it is nothing more than "first job finding" in which the very heart of vocational guidance, the recognition of individual differences, is either unknown or disregarded.

The junior placement which adheres most closely to vocational guidance standards in this country comes, for the most part, under three heads: that done by public school systems; that designated under the broad term of *public*

employment—that is, federal, state, or city placement, financed by public funds, administered by governmental employees, and available for the most part to a less restricted group than the services under private administration; that done by social and philanthropic organizations.

The extent to which any one of these types of service is developed in different sections of the country (the present amount of organization does not in any measure meet the need), is determined largely by local conditions and local needs. There is definite interplay between the different types of organization in communities where more than one of them exists, but neither the degree of cooperation nor the desire for closer cooperation is by any means constant. If the actual cooperation is not uniform throughout the country, the factors underlying it are even less uniform.

Junior Placement in the Schools. School systems are by no means agreed that junior placement should be a public education function, though most of the larger systems have some kind of organized plan for including it. It is interesting to see that the percentages of cities having placement within the systems increase as the city population increases, that is, only 21 per cent of the 25,000 to 49,000 population cities [1] which reported for this study, had placement service; 41 per cent of the cities of 50,000 to 99,000; and 75 per cent of the cities of 100,000 and over. Smaller cities tend to care for junior placement in more personal ways. The more intimate groups of families, friends, and teachers make individual, personal contacts more possible and through these channels children often secure jobs. The smaller cities are also free from the problems which heterogeneous races and nationalities present in more complex communities. These conditions, undoubtedly, have their effect on placement organization throughout the country. Disregarding certain exceptions, it would be safe to say that about a third of the school systems furnish and feel responsible for furnishing such aid to the school population.

[1] *See* Foreword.

In some systems, the placement work is organized in a central department headed by a director; in other systems, a decentralized plan is followed, with employment offices in the separate schools, and no effort is made to coordinate the work or to unify the activities. Most of the school systems which reported for this study follow the plan of maintaining a central office where all children are served, referred by their schools, or drifting in after other school connections have been severed. There is little indication in either plan that children are required to report at the placement department when they withdraw from school, though many make the connection as a result of their contact with vocational counselors, attendance officers, or other school officials. The work certificate departments of some schools are made responsible for referring children to the placement bureaus.

In cities with a central director, there are sometimes branch offices in the several schools, generally high schools and trade schools, which are responsible for their particular student groups. These offices are sometimes maintained in addition to a central placement bureau, or are conducted by a central authority but without a central bureau. Often the purely physical reason of distance is a factor in the branch office plan; sometimes a branch is organized in a location where particularly good employment contacts may be developed, or where there is a highly selected group which makes an office in the school more desirable.

In other cities the school offices are independently organized, and the placement work, instead of being done by special placement workers, as is usual in the centralized plan, is done almost entirely by teachers assigned part time.

This decentralized plan makes cooperation with other community employment agencies much more difficult, and is something of an admission that such cooperation is considered of secondary importance. One of the first steps toward adequate community cooperation would be close cooperation and clearance of employment information within the school system. This step the National Vocational Guidance Association commends in its statement:

All the placement activities within a school system should be under one administration or supervision so that there may be a standard common policy in dealing with the business world. Non-commercial and public employment agencies for persons under twenty-one years of age should be conducted in the closest possible relation with the public schools. . . .

Junior Placement in State Employment Bureaus. State employment bureaus believe, in an encouragingly large number, that a plan of closer coordination with school systems would be valuable for the junior program. Some think that boards of education should do all junior placement; others, that only the lower age levels, fourteen to sixteen years, should be cared for by school systems. The fact that so many of the public offices have urged cooperation hints at better standards and a better understanding of what the school guidance and placement offices are trying to accomplish. One state office said that cooperation would free the school bureaus for more complete attention to "vocational work"; and two state departments in cities having no separate junior placement service—Youngstown, Ohio, and Springfield, Massachusetts—acknowledging the work with juniors as a unit needing its own separate method, reported that public employment bureaus should have special junior departments. Some state departments feel that schools should undertake junior placement because it is an extra burden to the state, and some school departments would be glad to be free of the burden on themselves; but the fact that there is such general sense of the value of responsibility and cooperation on both sides is most hopeful.

Another position, held by some state offices, is that the state, with its factory inspection department, is in a much better position to do the entire job of junior placement; but this theory is in the decided minority. Some of the factors in its support have no substantial value, and are often due to purely local conditions tied up with local prejudices and attitudes. The position which some of the schools take, that they know the children better, and that they should therefore do the work of placement, has just as strong foundation. The

truth of the matter is that both kinds of information are necessary. Individuals must be known and followed up, jobs must be known and investigated, in order that placement may have value to the individual and to society and mean more than a temporary, and all too often an unsatisfactory, hitching up of work and worker.

Junior Placement in Social Agencies. Many privately endowed social agencies favor board of education control for junior placement as a whole, but regard special problems of placement as the function of agencies especially equipped to solve them. Some agencies carry on a junior placement program as an experiment, and say quite frankly that it is a temporary venture, its responsibilities to be diverted to other channels when these are sufficiently developed to take care of them. In some instances, the experiment is initiated as a means of making this particular part of the vocational guidance program available to a community, and often as an answer to a particular need. In others, it has been initiated with a long look ahead: to the possibility of organizing a rounded program of guidance in which its several activities are delegated to the community groups best able to handle them, both as individual units and as parts of a complete program in which the general philosophy and method of development are the same. Some agencies of the group studied specified particular activities, such as scholarships or special work with handicapped, which they hoped to develop after another agency—often school or state—should have taken over placement. Organization of this second kind calls for very close cooperation of the agencies represented, for an intimate understanding of the various phases of guidance, and for a deep determination to give individuals a balanced service rather than a concentrated portion of one phase which is often valueless without the others.

Methods of Organizing

That sound organization within a bureau or an individual agency may be the first important step to sound placement

organization within a community seems too obvious to mention, but the fact that casual and unorganized methods of placement and guidance are followed in so many communities and by so many organizations warrants the most earnest and careful consideration.

The organization of placement within bureaus themselves is as different as the organization of programs within different communities. Staffs differ in size and in qualifications. Variation in state and social agency offices is much more marked than in schools. Most offices have only one or two workers, and in some cases a single worker gives only part time to junior placement. Some few offices have staffs of more than ten workers, these for the most part in large metropolitan centers.

Weaknesses in Organization. In some school systems, placement is rather loosely done by teachers, principals, or other board of education employees who happen to know of jobs and individuals wanting jobs. In some social agencies, placement is done by workers whose first responsibilities lie in quite another field than vocational guidance, sometimes family relief work, sometimes health, or even group work. The obvious danger in both cases is that when any work suffers, it is the work that is done in this unorganized fashion —the thing that has been tacked on to the main job. Placement becomes sporadic, and is robbed of the very things which give it real worth: a full and continuous knowledge of individuals and of work opportunities, a bringing together of individual abilities and opportunities in which they may function, and follow-up to see results and help along the way. The more subtle danger, and the greater one, is that placement done by workers from other fields is likely to ignore, or rather to be unaware of, the techniques employed in good placement work; to apply incorrect methods and to block any really good ultimate work adjustment. The cooperation of these individuals is needed, undoubtedly, but the services which are a part of placement should always be given through the placement worker, who should have his

particular techniques and the training necessary for adapting and applying them.

Another very serious danger is that of losing valuable data through unorganized and casual efforts at placement, efforts which make no record of what has led to the action, no record of the action itself, and no record of its results. Jobs may be filled and in some cases fairly satisfactorily filled; but without records, contact ceases then, and jobs are very often relinquished with no kind of notification to the placement worker, and no effort at adjustment. In the process of hiring and firing, a costly one to business as well as to youth, both employer and junior worker are often disgruntled and ready to refuse future consultation with the placement worker. Other juniors lose the opportunity to be placed, for no one has been notified that jobs are available. Employers lose the chance for more satisfactory service from a central source to which they could immediately turn for help.

Inequality in Training of Placement Workers. Training requirements of placement workers differ widely at present. In some instances, bureaus say there are no educational or experience requirements; in some, the requirement is as low as eighth grade completion. Others require specialized training in psychology, economics, or sociology, and case work, in addition to college graduation, and some demand advanced degrees. For the most part, state bureaus depend on other qualities than academic achievement, with different standards for each set of appointees. When educational standards are set they are often lower than the standards of the school or social agency departments. In this connection people often say that the applicants who come to state departments are, in the main, of the industrial or casual labor group, and that high academic standards are not necessary for workers dealing with unskilled applicants.

Much can be said, however, on the other side—that the standards of a department determine in no small degree the clientele of the office, and that more attention to educational

requirements might do much to widen the service of public offices to include more applicants for skilled and even professional callings. For work with the industrial group there is also much to be gained from the understanding of economic and sociological problems, as well as from training in the techniques of placement and vocational guidance as a whole. A working understanding of any one of these is undoubtedly spurred tremendously by a sound academic preparation, and in many cases cannot be achieved without it. The social agency departments on the whole require more training in psychology, economics, and case work, and most social agencies require college graduation. Most of the bureaus which do not insist upon college graduation do insist upon some college or normal school work at least.

Training for workers in the public school departments generally meets the requirements for public school teachers, and in some cases goes beyond it, requiring specialized work in vocational guidance. In the smaller cities teachers, assigned either full time or part time, do the work of placement, but the tendency of the larger cities, particularly those over 100,000 population, is to employ special workers, on special licenses, with special abilities and training for this work.

Social agencies recommend more case work training for school systems, and school systems generally say that social agencies attack the job of placement with insufficient information about educational method, and often with a too scant knowledge of occupations. Both criticisms apparently have valid bases, but there seems to be real desire on the part of both groups to overcome their deficiencies. The growth of visiting teacher departments in school systems, and the efforts at occupational surveys and job analyses by social agencies, seem to be the outstanding efforts of each group in this direction.

Need for Community Study to Determine Plan of Organization. No one plan of organization can fit all communities. Every community must work out its own system of allocating the work to be done after a careful study of

its problems and its resources for meeting them. An industrial community presents problems which are quite different from those of a mercantile community; foreign groups which predominate in a city may introduce new and complicating factors into either type of community. All internal factors must be considered, but internal factors alone are insufficient. Every city also must go beyond its own boundaries for outside examples which may be of value in its organization plan. Similar communities have much to learn from each other in the matter of method. Social organizations, like school systems, have much valuable information which should be made available, so that the discoveries of one group may be of service to others and blunders may not be repeated. Such study should always begin with the consideration of the group for whom the service is planned—in this case, the children of the community who make up its junior working population. Without this consideration of the group itself, and without the consideration of each individual in the group, no plan of organization can function fully.

APPLICANTS SERVED

Children who apply at public school placement departments come, mainly, from the following sources: directly from the school system—withdrawals, or attendance cases; from private schools, often commercial, which are unable to place them; from jobs which are unsatisfactory, or which they have already left.

The revision of curricula to meet the individual needs of children has a distinct effect on the stabilization of the school group, and diminishes in some degree the probabilities of withdrawal at the earliest legal working age. It can therefore have a definite influence on the work of a junior placement office in regard to both the age and the attainments of applicants included in the first group.

The second group of applicants is generally made up of the less well-equipped children, for many of the commercial and trade schools have a job-finding service which operates for some of their graduates, generally only the most skilled.

The less well-endowed, who have not been sifted by conscientious entrance standards which include a measurement of individual capacities, often drift back to public school placement offices or become the burden of attendance departments. It would seem highly desirable that public school systems should be more specifically responsible for the entrance standards of all private schools to which these children are allowed transfer privileges; and that the same care should be exercised in their adjustment to the new school that would be used if the child demanded a transfer within the public school system. Where authority over commercial and trade schools exists, it is often insufficiently used, and sometimes limits itself to an insistence upon regular attendance at the chosen school, ignoring the more fundamental thing—a consideration of the fitness of the child for that particular enrolment, and an effort to prevent transfer when a high probability of failure exists. The effects of poor transfer policies often come to the surface in the junior employment office. Full authority could, of course, cover only those children whose age or grade attainment holds them under the jurisdiction of the school system.

The dangers of loose entrance standards are many. In the first place, the children themselves become problems if they are allowed to take training which is not commensurate with their abilities, and their adjustment as contented, useful members of society becomes difficult. The fact that they have paid money for this training, which in some cases proves useless, adds to their sense of injustice, for the money spent is a tangible, objective fact with which they can argue much more successfully than with the less familiar theories of the values of proper vocational education. Society itself suffers from a glutted market of young, poorly equipped individuals who float from job to job, and who are often forced at some later time to change their field entirely. Excessive turnover, always a costly process, has its real and serious effect upon business.

The whole matter of school jurisdiction over children, how it is organized and how it is enforced, has an important

bearing upon the work of the placement division, and should be a strong factor in the determination of age restrictions.

Restrictions in Junior Employment Bureaus

Age. The term *junior placement* covers different groups in different places and in different organizations, but departments generally include in the junior group all workers up to eighteen and sometimes to twenty-one years of age. The minimum age in public employment offices corresponds, for the most part, to the prescriptions of the state labor departments, and in the school offices the most frequent minimum is fourteen.

Most of the school departments with twenty-one as a maximum serve the group from fourteen years of age on, which means that some children have the chance of a seven-year period of service. School systems differ in their policies, and there are still those that serve restricted groups, fourteen to sixteen, sixteen to eighteen, and so forth, but there seems to be a decided effort to serve children over longer periods. There is a growing tendency on the part of school systems to set the maximum age at a higher level than formerly; instead of serving the group to eighteen years of age, formerly the most common maximum, they are reaching beyond to the twenty-one year group.

The raising of the maximum age is probably closely tied up with the standards of offices which recognize the value of follow-up and adjustment work after the child is in his job. It has probably also been influenced by the extension of guidance to high school groups. Even though the guidance program is still most strongly organized on the lower educational levels, there is a decided tendency to carry it over to the high school group, and even to the college group. There is a growing understanding of the social significance of the true guidance philosophy which continues to demonstrate that guidance should be a continuous educational service, available to groups on all levels, and not restricted to groups which are compelled to enter industry at an early

age. There is also a growing recognition of the fact that a large number of the children from the lower age levels are better off at school than at work, that most of the jobs open to children under sixteen have no real training value for their later occupational life, and that many of the jobs available to children even over sixteen have meager educational content.

Restrictions other than those of age exist more often in privately endowed agencies—race restrictions, religion, membership, sex, and so forth. For the most part, these other restrictions grow out of particular needs of particular groups, or out of a desire on the part of the agency to do a small job well rather than to attack the whole field and do it poorly. There is practically no evidence of what is so common in the adult field—agencies serving special occupational groups. Although this is generally termed a restriction, it may not be entirely fair to call it that, for if care is exercised in ascertaining the group in which the individual rightly belongs, and in cooperating with the agencies serving other groups, this may become less of a restriction and more of a wise division of community work. Where it does exist in the junior field it should have the most careful attention, for in many cases it is impossible to place children in the occupations, trades particularly, for which they apply and for which they are fitted. Occupational division, then, is practically impossible.

Sex. Sex restrictions are often determined by the field of the organization doing the employment, rather than by the employment department. A boys' organization will restrict service to boys, but not so often to boys of a particular group; a woman's organization may serve only girls, but very often all girls who come to it. Restrictions in private agencies, as in public school systems, are often bound up strongly with finances. On the whole, there seems to be a conscientious effort to discover the groups needing most assistance, and to concentrate on groups which other agencies are not serving. Any effort to avoid overlapping is bound to make for more adequate service, but when different

groups are served by different organizations, prompt co-operative action becomes an indispensable factor of success.

Race. There is more evidence of restriction for race than for any other reason, but there are strong indications that race restrictions in the agencies under consideration are not made for purposes of exclusion, but to avoid overlapping, and to insure service to particular groups. For example, some agencies do not admit Negro applicants because there are other agencies specifically organized to work with them. These special bureaus, then, restrict their services just as rigidly to their own groups. Opinions about the wisdom of such restrictions differ, but opinions are individual opinions, and not decisions to which one or another racial group gives a united racial belief. That special races present special problems is unchallenged, but that the same races in different sections of the country have their separate difficulties is also evident. In one section of the country a large static resident group may present difficulties, in another a steady stream of migration may be a problem.

Membership. There is surprisingly little restriction to membership groups, though many of the agencies doing placement work are membership organizations—Young Men's and Young Women's Christian Associations, fraternal organizations, and the like. For the most part, the fraternal bureaus serve only the families of their members, but most of the other organizations do not make membership a requirement. There are some agencies which get around it by saying membership is not required, but desired, and in that way throw a kind of moral obligation on the applicants. Although restriction and this kind of semi-restriction seem quite legitimate in certain instances, policies should be sufficiently flexible to make deviations possible. It would surely seem that every office, however rigid its placement rules, if it cannot serve the applicant with an actual job or job information, should feel enough responsibility to refer him to a source which can. Information about vocational guidance sources should be at the fingertips of all bureaus, regardless of the fields they serve. Secretaries sometimes argue that

reference takes too much time, but if all agencies are properly educated about the work of all other agencies, and if a community system of reference results, work and expense will be diminished rather than increased, both for the individual and for the agency serving him.

Relief Groups. Relief agencies frequently limit their placement work to their own group, although a few of them do carry a small number of outside clients, some of whom are juniors. There are indications that this additional placement is sometimes done to prevent a good job from going begging, and that it relates more closely to service for the employer than to service for the individual, for unless the good will of the employer is retained through fairly continuous service, it is sometimes difficult to get calls from him when suitable applicants from the regular case load are available. Unless a job surplus exists, this outside service is likely to be discontinued.

The whole question of relief as it relates to the field of junior employment is one which demands the serious consideration of groups interested in either emphasis. So often a child is drawn from school to enter industry only to add to the family income; so often he is drawn into industry when he is not yet ripe for the occupation he wishes to enter; and all too often this first unsatisfactory job, which represents nothing more than a weekly wage, casts its gloomy influence over his whole future work life. Many of these children cannot properly be called employment cases, and should not be included in the field of junior placement.

PRACTICES OF A JUNIOR EMPLOYMENT SERVICE

The problem of why children leave school to go to work is of infinite importance in the consideration of the education of an individual and his best training for happy, occupied adulthood, but it is a problem of even wider social significance. Workers and organizations interested in employment problems and their economic implications cannot afford to close their eyes to the effect of loose junior em-

ployment on the adult field. Possibly a too wide junior employment field has contributed in no small degree to the problem which is now so constantly in the foreground of employment discussion—the unemployment of older men and women.

The Placement Worker's Problems

What the junior employment bureau does follows naturally from the discussion of the people it serves. The first job of the bureau should be to discover whether or not the individual who applies to it is really presenting an employment problem, that is, whether employment itself is the answer to his need, or whether employment is being used to meet some other need.

If the child's father has lost his job and the child has to work to earn money for the family, is this a junior employment problem, or a family relief problem? If a boy of seventeen is getting a job so that he can earn money to cut away from an unhappy home environment, is this a problem of tying him up to a job, or is it a matter of adjusting the individual to his environment or helping him to select a new environment? If a student is going to work to earn money for an art course, is this a question of work, or is it a question of curriculum adjustment, with scholarship aid? If a child is going to work to secure medical service for a sick mother, is this junior employment, or is it community health with clinical care? If a girl wants to earn money for new clothes and personal furbelows so that she may be socially acceptable to her group, is it a problem of her leaving school to earn them at full-time work, or is it a question to be met by helping her to find part-time work and supplying her with information about more recreational opportunities in her community?

All these are questions which the employment worker must ferret out, questions which should be stimulated in the child's own mind, through the careful and sympathetic interest of the placement worker, so that the child himself

may have a genuine part in the solution of his problem and the process may be one of education rather than one of superimposed remedy. In school systems having the services of vocational counselors and visiting teachers, many of these questions are given attention long before school leaving is even imminent, and the placement department can devote its efforts to the work which is its more distinct concern, the actual work of placing boys and girls in jobs for which they are equipped, and the subsequent follow-up which all good placement entails.

Vocational Counseling in Placement

Patience and skill are necessary if the employment worker is to accomplish much during the discouraging period of job-finding. A more subtle technique is required than even the counselor has needed before, for anything which contributes to a postponement of work is regarded by the child and his parents not only as unnecessary but as definitely undesirable. To the very natural feeling of discontent which the child feels at being unable to walk directly into a job, whether suited to his abilities or not, is often added a feeling which has been born of haphazard information along the way. How often children come to a crowded placement hall after an over-optimistic teacher, or a poorly informed friend, has said she was sure he could get a good job promptly, every employment worker knows.

Interpretation of the social and economic conditions into which young people must fit themselves is finally up to the placement adviser, and in a form which cannot be evaded. The boy or girl who fails to get work, especially the work for which he has had or thinks he has had training, presents an acute problem, the handling of which may have far-reaching effects in his final adjustment. The placement adviser must know the whole employment situation, not theoretically, but practically. The work needs of the community, the social barriers which persist in work relationships, the restrictions of entry upon specified lines of work, must form

a part of the adviser's store of knowledge. He must produce the job or tell the reason why. If wise school counseling has prefaced the young person's search for work, the task of the placement adviser is greatly simplified.

And just here, the placement bureau which is a part of, or which cooperates closely with, the schools, has a service to render in getting to the schools facts as to employment needs and changes, in order that young people leaving school for work may be rightly advised of their expectancies.

Bureaus are realizing more and more that this kind of educational work is one of the prime factors of junior employment work. Even the public bureaus, where opportunity to develop standards which conform to those advocated by vocational guidance authorities has been limited by a lower salary scale for workers, and under-staffed departments, are beginning to see the wisdom of raising the level of their work and following the plans which schools and philanthropic agencies have recommended. The establishment of separate junior bureaus in the state departments, and the interest which some public officials have shown in this kind of growth, will make for increased efficiency in meeting the whole employment problem.[1]

The Rôle of the Part-time Job. Much direction can be given through part-time jobs, before the child leaves school, if he has opportunities for consultation along the way. Part-time jobs, for some inexplicable reason, are too often regarded as ways of keeping children out of mischief, and miss the chance of being a real educative force. To some groups they offer the very best kind of tryout experience, often to groups where other opportunities at early occupational exploration are rare. To others they offer financial help which makes further attendance at school possible. Part-time work is not always plentiful, and the tendency is to snatch at what there is without selection. But just as careful attention should be given to the placement and supervision of chil-

[1] For recent organization of separate junior bureaus in a state department, see the *Five Year Report,* Vocational Service for Juniors, N. Y. C.

dren in part-time as in full-time work. So far as actual operations are concerned, the opportunities for learning may be meager, but there is a fund of valuable experience to be gained: how to apply for the job, what to wear, how to play fair in a bad situation, and countless other details which can be carried on to a full-time job later.

In school systems where counseling is not well developed, this supervision of occupational experience must be done almost entirely in the placement bureau. It is probably fair to say that in these systems placement must weld the counseling process and the placement process, and that it must set up a technique which will overcome, as largely as it can, the handicap of a deferred counseling process, and cramp it into a more concentrated period of time. On the face of it, this is a more difficult task, for it becomes a more conscious process for the child, and counseling is not so willingly absorbed as when he himself has had a long-time look at possibilities and a long-time consideration of the questions which puzzle him. Persons who apply at employment bureaus are ready for jobs and are not deeply concerned with *right* jobs. This holds for adults as well as for children, and makes it necessary for the employment worker to surmount one more obstacle in the achievement of a successful employment adjustment. To the applicant real employment information, real vocational counsel, real consideration of all the threads which weave a complete picture, are merely red tape from which he must somehow disentangle himself to reach the thing he really wants—a job!

METHODS OF CONDUCTING JUNIOR PLACEMENT

Separation of Adult and Junior Placement Work. Social agencies are by no means free from the criticism which is often directed toward bureaus which serve both adults and juniors.[1] Many of the social agency bureaus serve both

[1] This study defines *junior* as boys and girls up to eighteen years of age, while many social agencies define the term to include all boys and girls up to twenty-one.

groups. Generally the same workers serve adults and juniors, but there seems to be a genuine effort on the part of the agencies to enter the junior field only when it is getting inadequate attention elsewhere, and to turn it over to the schools or public departments when they are equipped to handle it. The efforts of social agencies to make school systems and public agencies responsible for full guidance programs are the best index of their fairly general belief that all steps of guidance are educational functions and public responsibilities, and that their own efforts should be exerted to fill in the gaps rather than to initiate competing programs. These gaps they often fill temporarily, to serve as demonstrations, or to meet particular emergencies.

If the same workers who serve adults serve juniors, criticism should be tempered in some degree, and it should be remembered that the requirements for social agency employment workers are generally about as high as the standards in school systems, and in many cases even higher. For the most part, the requirements in public offices lag sadly behind.

The methods which are employed in the adult specialized social agency departments are generally so thorough, so well based upon a complete knowledge of individual and job that they would bear the rather careful scrutiny of a junior placement critic.

Here again the state departments lag. Children generally wait in the same waiting halls with adults, herded in with applicants of varying degrees of working skill, and varying ethical standards as well. The fact that so many casual jobs are filled at public bureaus accounts in some measure for the rather inferior adult groups in their waiting halls. The system which is popular in many commercial agencies, and which some public bureaus follow, interviewing only those applicants for whom there seem to be jobs, leaves the less skilled and less desirable group sitting in the hall to educate the younger applicants with their own tales of job-finding and job-leaving.

About one-half of the junior employment bureaus serve

children of fourteen years of age, and some serve even younger applicants. To many of these youngsters there is something decidedly swagger about being "a bum," and something highly romantic and impressive about people in cheap flashy clothes and too vivid lipstick. These all drift to an employment bureau. They should drift to an employment bureau, but they should drift in their own particular current, for their good, and for the good of other applicants.

Privacy Necessary for Interviews. Privacy for employment interviews is almost unanimously agreed to be not only desirable but necessary, if any kind of good results are to be obtained. Some kind of grouping even during the period of waiting should be devised to carry over a kind of privacy to this preliminary contact with the bureau. Probably no more than 15 per cent of the public offices in which junior work is done have separate waiting rooms. Movable partitions or screens are sometimes employed, but there is little indication of even this in the public departments. Desks are sometimes placed so that there is small chance of being overheard, and as little chance as possible of a clear view of other applicants. Often there is no indication of any effort at privacy, and it has even been said that it is a foolish pampering of the unemployed. School offices and most social agencies, however, are ready to refute this opinion strongly, and their efforts continue in the direction of the greatest possible privacy, not only for the interview, but for the period of waiting. The practice of calling out jobs, with its subsequent rush of applicants to the desk, is likewise to be condemned.

Need for Individual Interview. A few social agency departments and many state departments turn away applicants whom they cannot place, without interviews, and sometimes without even a word from a reception clerk. In the first instance, the applicant is told by a worker who has charge of the waiting hall that "there is nothing in," and the chance for even the shortest interview is denied him. In the second instance, he waits in a crowded hall from which

likely candidates are called when openings are reported to the department. He leaves when the office hours are over, and repeats the performance next day. This procedure may be understood in profit-making commercial agencies, but it cannot obtain in a department which purports to be organized for the benefit of those applying to it.

THE INTERVIEW

Interviews which are employed as fact-finders are ideally planned to cover only that information for which there is no other objective source, but there is infinitely more to the interview than drawing out information. It offers the mechanics for counseling, probably the only means which an employment worker has. School offices are probably most conscientious in their efforts at interviewing applicants every time the applicants signify their desire for consultation, and in keeping adequate records of what takes place over a long period of time. Possibly the plan of keeping cumulative record cards during the school life of the child has stimulated the school placement worker to the importance of current histories; perhaps the first impetus to the cumulative school record came from the social work or *case* angle which specialized departments said was necessary. At any rate, one method plays very well into the other, and adequate employment work and employment records are helped tremendously by adequate school records.

Fact Finding. People ask for examples of ideal interviews. There can be no good interviews and no bad interviews, except as they relate to individuals, and to the specific set of circumstances which are presented at the particular time the interview is held. An interview cannot be planned; it grows, fed by the individual, who, to continue the figure of speech, can secure extra bits of nourishment, from time to time, from the interviewer. Interviews at different stages of an individual's work adjustment are bound to be entirely different in character. In the beginning they are designed to collect information and to assemble it in some kind of

orderly arrangement, not through a straight question and answer method, but through a conversation which will cover the points the interviewer must ascertain—facts about the applicant, his schooling, his former work experience, his vocational choices now, and how he has come to arrive at them.

Facts about his family are generally required too. Over one-half of the social agencies studied make home visits. In most cases the visiting is done by the employment worker, but in some instances special workers are engaged to do it—case workers, often, who visit for more than one department in organizations carrying on various kinds of activities. The schools are tending more and more in the direction of special departments for this work, and with the growth of visiting teacher programs this home information may be made accessible to school placement bureaus. State departments have practically no facilities for home visiting, but in the few instances where they consider it necessary they call upon some community agency from whom they can later secure a report.

Information Giving. Later in the placement process there comes the stage when the applicant is collecting information about jobs, about training requirements for them, and about the ways of securing the kind of position which interests him most vitally. This information the employment bureau has collected from a close study of the community and generally from first-hand contact with employers. Most junior bureaus visit employers, but the reason for visits, and the methods, vary widely. School offices visit primarily for investigation purposes, and therefore try to visit before placement or directly after. Some school departments feel less pressure about investigating jobs before placement if they are jobs for older boys, and allow these less urgent visits to take second place in crowded programs. Other offices hold over the visits for the jobs in which they feel there is less chance of placement, and concentrate on the jobs to which they can send applicants most promptly. These are merely devices for planning the work of the office most

wisely, for school departments are practically united in the belief that investigations before placement are necessary in the junior field, especially for girls.

Social agencies and state departments visit mainly for securing more jobs, although an encouragingly large number of them do visit for investigation and for follow-up. The investigation is done most often by the employment workers, but in some cases by people in other departments, interested in it but not trained in or familiar with the entire program of the employment department. In only one social agency department, from over a hundred studied, was a special visitor employed whose sole duty was investigation, and this was in a bureau whose main work was in the adult field. A few social agencies have attempted occupational surveys to present in pamphlet form comprehensive pictures of various positions, but the production of occupational pamphlets is still most thoroughly and systematically done by school systems, notably those of Chicago, Cincinnati, Milwaukee, and New Orleans.

Follow-Up. After the work of actual placement, comes a third kind of interview, and a most important one if any of the others are to have their full value: the follow-up interview, in which there is a chance for discussion of the job and the child's growth on the job, his education along the way, what the later opportunities are, and how he can make ready to meet them. Many departments, even many school departments, do their follow-up work through the employer only, by personal visit after a placement has been effected, by letter, or by telephone call. When a visit is made it is sometimes possible to see the child on the job and to have a short interview with him there. A more satisfactory follow-up of the child is possible if he can return to the employment department, away from restraint and free from criticism because of seeming interference which such an interview on the job might create. These interviews are held generally in evening office hours, arranged for this particular purpose, or in time reserved for the child by special appointment. Some employers are willing to give children time

from work to have this consultation, particularly if the child is very much in need of counsel at which the employer himself has been unsuccessful. Tardiness, overtime, illness, and countless other matters sometimes can be adjusted successfully in the placement department, after conferences between the child and the employer have proved fruitless. A continuation school child can generally call at the employment office on his day in school. If an office interview can be combined with a visit to the employer, the worker is able to get the clearest picture of how the child is progressing. The most important thing which the follow-up can hold is often not the particular adjustment, but the method of adjustment which the child and the employment worker devise together; so that the child may have a working basis on which to operate when a similar situation next arises.

RECORD KEEPING

In a Junior Employment Bureau

A carefully planned system of record keeping is essential if an office is to have any yardstick by which it can measure the work of the department, or what is infinitely more important, if it is to do its best work for an individual. Anything which bears upon the occupational life of the child is important; anything which is important must be recorded if it is to be of any value. Too often have teachers, counselors, and even placement workers carried bits of information in their heads because they hated to put them down in black and white, particularly if not flattering to the child. This attitude, when taken by teachers, robs the placement worker of a chance to evaluate all the facts available, and to make a fair judgment on the basis of them. Often it has been due to a genuine, though unintelligent, wish to protect the child by saying nothing against him, and thus give him a better chance for a job. Sometimes it has come about only because the worker considered record keeping a waste of time and

energy, a useless frill to be indulged in only for the barest essentials. One teacher, in a system where cumulative school records were not available, said that she had not notified the placement department that a child had lost a year from school owing to a very serious cardiac condition, because she did not consider that any business of an employment department, especially since the child might fail to get a job because of it. And there was the placement worker who did not note any of the telephone messages from children because there was no place to put them in the monthly report.

Social agencies and state departments have much to learn from school placement offices in the matter of record keeping. Fully one-third of the social agencies do not interview applicants or record their visits each time they come, and about two-thirds of the state departments do not. In the more crowded and less careful of these departments it is perfectly possible for a child to appear morning after morning, sit in a crowded hall, have no interview, and go home each successive day with no record of his appearance or his leaving. In some offices where workers say that records are kept, it is found that a waiting-hall record which keeps a kind of tally count of applicants is the record meant. Such a record means nothing even as an unemployment index, for there is nothing to tell how much duplication there has been from day to day. It is merely a count of applications at an office, which is a very different thing from a count of applicants, and it is a poor count of applications, for without interviews there is no way of measuring the necessity for the application.

The fact that most bureaus consider good records essential to placement is indicative of their desire to make them adequate. But the fact that so many bureaus say also that a very important reason for them is that they are necessary for reports, shows that in many instances they are still an impersonal part of office machinery, more closely tied to the mechanics of the department than to the service of the individual who applies.

In a School Employment Office

Adequately planned forms for a school employment office should give points covering three factors which must enter into well-rounded junior placement service. These are: personality and attainments of the child, so that well-selected candidates may be sent to employers; jobs and requirements presented by employers, so that the best opportunities commensurate with their abilities may be offered the children; continued contact with young workers to encourage and steady their progress.

Cumulative records, therefore, need to be kept both for the child and the employer. In securing information about the child, the following data are fundamental to an adequate record: name, address, telephone, date of birth, nationality, height, weight, father's name, father's occupation, school, course, grade completed, date of leaving or graduation, if drop-out, reason for leaving, further education planned, kind of work desired, what transportation used, previous working experience, space for interviewer's remarks.

The following items of characterization, necessary properly to evaluate the applicant, may be secured by the school counselor from his personnel records and from the ratings of individual teachers: average grade or standing in class, intelligence, industry, accuracy, cooperativeness, initiative, reliability, leadership, marked aptitudes, results of psychological testing.

Some school employment offices include as further items: whether living at home or boarding; whether single or married or having dependents; health, physical defects; use of glasses; church; race; permanent, temporary, full-time or part-time work sought; work objected to.

The reverse of the card usually is ruled to carry the record of employment references, with dates and results.

The employer's call card shows the name of firm, address, type of business, telephone number, hours; kind of worker desired, number, age, sex, wage; and name of person

hiring. Some offices differentiate special groups according to age, sex, or kind of work by color of card; some include restrictions, and items of job analysis and follow-up. Properly speaking, these should be recorded separately, the information about the job and the plant on specially designed cards in a file distinct from the placement files but available to the placement counselor. The reverse of the card may be ruled to record names of applicants referred, dates, and results.

Continued contact with young clients, or follow-up, often covering a period of years, yields cumulative records of replacements and individual progress, much of which can be entered on the applicant's placement record. Some school employment offices undertake periodic follow-up studies of certain groups, calling into conference all continuation school girls or boys in office work, or handicapped clients, or all placements of a selected period. Special questionnaires are planned for these studies, and the information secured may be entered on individual follow-up records or may be added to that collected in the occupational investigation file.

School employment bureaus for the most part collect more detailed information than other employment bureaus, not only because they are convinced that it is necessary, but because the necessary data are more easily accessible to them. Cumulative record cards, where they exist, furnish an infinite amount of help to the placement worker, for they give a series of pictures of abilities and attainments from year to year, in addition, generally, to social histories, health histories, and estimates of teachers and counselors over a period of time. In some cases the results of mental tests are also included, but less than a third of the one hundred and fifty school systems studied used test results for placement.

Other records which are available to the school placement departments may include case studies from the visiting teacher divisions, though these departments still are less well organized than they should be, and work records from em-

ployment certificate departments. These furnish ideal check-up sources for the records which the offices receive through personal interviews.

In Social Agencies and State Bureaus

Both social agency and state departments generally secure less information about school achievement, mainly because it is so difficult to obtain the cooperation of school authorities, and partly, in state departments at least, because it is impossible to do so thorough a piece of work except in the bureaus where special junior divisions are organized.

The inquiry for this study listed the following points regarding the *individual* and his *work history,* and asked agencies responding to check those items recorded:

The Individual: date of birth, birthplace, religion, school grade completed, special training, continuation school attendance, age on leaving school, reason for leaving school, health examination, report or rating of character or personal characteristics obtained from teachers, employment worker, former employer, or others; leisure-time interests, immediate job desired, eventual work plan, plan for further education or training.

Work History: name of firm, type of business, kind of job, how job found, weekly wage, time employed, reason for leaving.

Ninety per cent of the social agencies which furnished record information for this study were securing facts regarding the individual on date of birth, school grade completed, special training, immediate job desired, and work history covering name of firm, type of business, kind of job, weekly wage, and time employed. More than 90 per cent of all agencies studied answered these questions, indicating that something less than 10 per cent kept no record of the items suggested. The only items recorded by approximately 90 per cent of the state bureaus were under work history: name of firm, type of business, and kind of job.

Over half of the social agencies secured the individual items: birthplace, religion, continuation school attendance, age on leaving school, reason for leaving school, report or rating from teachers, report or rating from former employer, eventual work plan, plan for further education or training, besides the following points in work history: name of firm, type of business, kind of job, weekly wage, time employed, and reason for leaving. In addition to the three items which 90 per cent of the state bureaus recorded, one-half of the bureaus recorded date of birth, birthplace, school grade completed, special training, immediate job desired, and time employed previous to registration. The items covered by the fewest social agency departments were, in diminishing order of importance: leisure-time interests, health examinations, test results, and how children had secured their jobs previous to registration. The items covered by the fewest state departments were: plan for further education, how children had secured their jobs previous to registration, religion, health examinations, and leisure-time interests.

State departments are more careful than social agency departments about demanding work certificate records from their applicants, but in other general information they cover only about half as many points as most social agencies cover. The average number of points covered by state departments is about eight, and the average by social agencies fourteen.

The inquiry listed the following with regard to family status: birthplace of father, parents living or dead, marital state of parents, occupation of parents, number of older brothers and sisters, occupations of brothers and sisters, amount of education received by brothers and sisters before going to work.

Family information is secured in a much smaller degree than information for the individual. Only 60 per cent of the social agencies answered this family section of the questionnaire at all, indicating that 40 per cent received no family histories; and only 25 per cent of the state bureaus replied, indicating that as many as 75 per cent omitted it from their records. The only question asked by as many as 90 per cent

of the agencies answering was whether parents were living or dead. About 80 per cent of the state bureaus which answered listed this question, by far the largest proportion among the family data recorded by state bureaus.

Over half of the social agencies secured information on these additional facts: marital state of parents, occupation of parents, number of older brothers and sisters, and number of younger brothers and sisters. Next to whether parents were living or dead, state bureaus secured most information on marital state of parents, and this was secured by only about 40 per cent of the bureaus. The item which was omitted by almost all agencies, social and state, was the amount of education received by brothers and sisters. The average number of family points covered by social agencies is four, and the average for state bureaus, two.

References. In addition to this personal information, secured largely by interview and sometimes checked against other objective sources, many agencies require references for applicants before placing them. More than half of the social agencies under consideration asked for both character and work references, about a third required neither, and of the remainder more asked for work references than for character references. About 60 per cent of the state bureaus required neither work nor character references, and almost all of the others asked for both.

Psychological Test Records. A valuable addition to the information which most social agencies collect is the psychological test record. Our figures indicate that even though, numerically, fewer children may be tested for social agencies' work, more of the tests are used by them in connection with employment work. About one-fifth of the agencies have some provision for testing in their own organizations, and more than half of the others have community resources to which they can refer children for examinations. Very few agencies test their applicants as a matter of routine, but some are doing this, largely for research purposes during a period of experimentation.

"Difficult applicants" are the ones who are tested most

often; then comes a group asking for particular jobs, often jobs requiring mechanical skill or dexterity, and last comes the group of promising applicants tested for educational counsel as often as for placement. Test results are used most often to assist the worker in establishing a sound basis for advice about special training, either in school or on the job, and for urging children mentally well endowed to return to school. They are used less often for obtaining scholarships, and for reference to other agencies for other types of service.

General intelligence tests are used most often, and the Otis Self-Administering and Stanford-Binet head the list in frequency of use. Aptitude tests follow, with tests for mechanical abilities and clerical ability in the lead. A few educational tests are given and still fewer personality tests.

The growth of popularity of tests may prove to be more harmful than beneficial, for there are evidences that testing is being done by people who are not adequately trained, and who select certain tests with no knowledge of all the tests available, and with no very clear idea of interpretation of test results. If results are to be more than a numerical score, and if they are to be worth even the expense of the blanks which are needed to administer them, not only must they be chosen with a clear knowledge of the group to be tested and the tests available, but they must be administered scientifically and interpreted afterward. They must be checked against other data available and given their proper weight in the diagnosis of the individual. Tight lips have too often sealed the fate of an individual by a final statement, "His I. Q. is only eighty-three!" If organizations are to use tests they should first inform themselves about them, and be willing to engage skilled workers to carry on a testing program. If employment bureaus are to use them they must also know relationships between intelligence levels and achievements.

Reports. Reports show the greatest possible range in standards, and the greatest amount of department individualism. One bureau reports on the number of applicants who apply, and means the number of persons who apply at the

bureau during the course of a month; another bureau reports the same item and means the total number of times all the persons applied during the month. Still others make the one title cover a hodgepodge of both, assembled from inaccurate daily reports, and added together at the end of the month to give some index of the bureau's activities. While these inaccurate records may have some slight value in their own organizations, they fail completely if they are to be compared with the records of other agencies. In community comparisons, and in even wider than community interchange of information, lies the fundamental value of employment reports. This is probably more true of employment than of some other fields, for the national status of employment has its influence on every phase of life, and a true nation-wide report can be made only from local reports which recognize the value of uniform methods and uniform terminology.

COOPERATION WITH AGENCIES IN THE COMMUNITY

By School Placement Bureaus

School placement bureaus do not show as much direct cooperation with social agencies as do the social agencies' placement offices, but in the cities where visiting teacher departments are organized social agency cooperation is doubtless gained through that channel. Cooperation with agencies undertaking any of the phases of vocational guidance seems much more a part of the school placement bureau's concern.

By Social Agency Bureaus

Both the social agency and the state department cooperate most frequently with the schools or boards of education. Next in order of importance for the social agency bureaus come health agencies, then relief, then a miscellaneous group including churches, social service exchanges, community chests, scholarship funds, and so forth; then recreational and educational agencies outside the schools; then other

junior employment bureaus; and in the smallest number of cases, organizations concerned with behavior problems.

On the whole, the social agency departments seem to have more information about community resources and are using community agencies more than the state departments use them. In addition to family case work and relief which they receive through this cooperation, they are often able to secure special vocational counsel, and vocational talks for groups of their applicants, when their own departments are not organized so that they can give as much of this service as they consider desirable. Half of the social agencies reporting on the kind of service they obtained from other community sources specified scholarship aid. This seems significant, for it is such an admirable way for interested individuals to contribute to a guidance program, and such a splendid way for organizations to have a real part in guidance activities if they are not able to conduct well-organized bureaus of their own.

Practically all of the social agencies use a social service exchange to some extent, to discover what other community organizations have worked on the cases they are serving, especially those cases about which there seem to be particular problems, or particular need for community cooperation. State departments are rarely able to do this with any regularity, although they do in some very urgent cases.

The bureaus using a social service exchange have a running start on possibilities for cooperation, for a knowledge of what agencies are already interested in a case makes an excellent point of attack for planning future cooperative action.

By State Bureaus

The order of importance for state bureau community contacts is: schools or board of education; relief agencies; recreational and educational agencies outside the schools; a miscellaneous group, different from those designated by the social agency departments, generally luncheon clubs, civic organizations, and chambers of commerce; organizations deal-

ing with behavior problems. The number of state bureaus using the juvenile court is fully twice that of the social agencies using it, but there is nothing to indicate whether this is owing to a difference in the kinds of applicants, or a difference in the attitudes of the offices toward behavior cases.

Tendencies Toward Extended Cooperation

Directories. Directories of all agencies doing employment, with notes of what fields they cover, whom they serve, names of workers, and office hours, may be a good start in the direction of assembling information. It is sometimes quite possible to have leaflets reprinted from larger documents, covering this information. New York City reprinted such a section from the *Directory of Social Agencies,* and found that there was such demand for this specialized directory that about two thousand copies were sold the first year.

Central Reporting. Possibly the greatest need, and a very apparent one, for the employment agencies throughout the country, is a consideration of like terminology and like methods of reporting, so that there can be freer interchange of employment facts not only in communities but in the country as a whole. An outstanding example of this is the work done through the Welfare Council in New York City, where thirty-five agencies interested in employment and vocational guidance are keeping uniform records and reporting to a central research bureau at monthly intervals.[1] This information is assembled, copies of the report are distributed to the agencies in the experiment, and valid comparisons are made possible.

Like Terminology. Before such a scheme could be initiated a vast amount of time and thoughtful energy were spent in creating a clear definition of terms, so that *placement* did not mean a *job filled* in one organization, and a *person placed* in another organization. Obviously, a temporary worker could be two *placements* in a month if the first

[1] *See* Appendix G, p. 375.

definition were used, and one *placement,* if the second were used. *Applicant* versus *application* was discussed, and finally a common understanding was reached, and a common determination to follow the plan which was outlined. A representative committee made the first plans, and later submitted them to all bureaus entering the experiment. Some changes were made at the outset, and even after the central reporting started questions arose which made minor changes necessary. Agencies were urged to consult the central research bureau at any time for explanations, and to notify it of further suggestions.

Uniform Records. After months of trial, reports were made uniform and agencies were more than ever convinced that a minimum of information, well assembled and correctly noted, was of more value than pages of detail which were not very clear to the bureau devising them, and of no value whatever to any other bureau.

Clearance of Unused Calls. In addition to the central reporting there grew up a clearance system, whereby all cooperating bureaus were given exchange information about unused calls from employers, so that jobs were filled at the first possible chance, and information about openings was made available to workers. The central clearance office was housed in the state department, jointly financed, over the period of experimentation, by all participating bureaus.

An Employment Information Service also was started under the auspices of the Welfare Council, and made possible through the courtesy of one of the participating agencies.[1] The service covered telephone, visit, and letter requests for information on kinds of applicants received at each of the non-profit making bureaus, and types of jobs which these bureaus handled frequently. Approximately a thousand requests are made a year. About half are telephone inquiries and over a third are made by personal call at the service. The service has been used most by social agencies, over ninety during the first year, and by the general public; but

[1] Vocational Service for Juniors, Mary H. S. Hayes, Director, 122 E. 25th St., N. Y. C.

business men, churches, police officers, and schools have found it a valuable help.

Central File for Industrial Investigation Information. The Junior Division of the New York State Bureau, newly born, offered its services and filing space for the collection of industrial visit information. Each bureau making an industrial visit recorded all the information which was jointly agreed to be of importance, and each bureau added what it needed for its own use. All information was turned back to the state office, in franked envelopes, for central filing and for later consultation by anyone who wanted it. Subsequent visits were permitted after clearance with the agency making the original contact with the firm, and thus employers were made aware of the plan for cooperation which served the agencies and which served them by eliminating duplication. Cincinnati employment bureaus are now planning some such system of cooperation. Other cities would do well to consider it.

Any effort which will conserve the strength of the applicant, and conserve the energy of agencies will be of infinite value to a community, both in lessening actual expense, and in increasing the well-being of its citizens.

RECOMMENDATIONS

1. More adequate facilities should be provided for free junior placement.

Provision should be made for separate and distinct junior placement departments under the public schools or labor departments in all communities where there is need.

Junior employment departments should be provided with private offices for interviewing applicants. Where this is impossible, separate waiting-halls should be provided for juniors and special placement workers should be assigned to junior placement.

Such bureaus should be adequately staffed, definite space provided and definite hours kept.

2. Junior placement offices should place the interest and welfare of the children before all other interests.

They should aim not merely to fill jobs, but to place young people in suitable positions, with intelligent appreciation of opportunities ahead, taking into account so far as possible their abilities, education, and physical condition. Psychological tests may often be used to advantage.

They should aim to encourage boys and girls to remain in school, or to secure further education if they must work. Available scholarship funds should be made use of, where necessary.

They should interview applicants every time they apply.

They should refer junior applicants only to those places of employment which first have been investigated.

They should follow up and supervise boys and girls whom they place, giving them the benefit of advice when needed.

They should serve all young people regardless of race or creed.

Special provision should be made for the placement of mentally, physically, or socially handicapped applicants by those familiar with their special problems in cases where this handicap is so marked that it cannot be handled through normal employment channels.

3. Junior employment agencies should use all available community resources for a more complete service to boys and girls.

There should be the closest cooperation with the schools, especially in the use of school reports including reports on scholarship, home conditions, birth and health records, and information from the employment certification office.

Social agencies of all types should be used by the junior placement office for the best possible adjustment of the boy or girl, including the use of the Social Service Exchange.

4. Adequate records should be kept by all junior employment bureaus.

The information secured should conform to certain minimum and uniform standards drawn up by public bureaus in cooperation with national organizations, or state and federal departments.

Every interview should be recorded on the individual record of the applicant, and a report kept of the data secured from each industrial investigation.

Report information should be collected, at monthly intervals, to include, as a minimum, record of applicants served, number of applications, positions available, persons placed, and total placements made.

Provision should be made for centralized comparable employment information in a community through such devices as: uniform monthly reporting, clearance of labor calls, information service regarding employment facilities, central file of industrial investigations.

5. Junior placement should be done only by those specifically engaged for this work, and training requirements should include at least a high school education, though a college education is more desirable, with special training in economics, sociology, and case work.

It is desirable that at least one member of the staff shall have had training in the fundamentals of statistics.

It is essential that the placement worker be familiar with labor and education laws, and have a knowledge of industrial conditions and opportunities in various fields of work, through visits to industrial and business establishments.

SPECIAL PROBLEMS IN VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE

SPECIAL PROBLEMS IN VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE

A NUMBER of special situations in the field of vocational guidance do not lend themselves conveniently to treatment under the ordinary heads. Race differences, for example, are real factors that affect guidance and placement. The more than three hundred thousand Indians scattered over the United States and varying widely in their relation to the dominant white civilization are dependent upon an adequate guidance and placement program as an essential part of the adjustment of their youth to modern American life. Many among the millions of Negro young people, even in the face of the remarkable achievements of their race in the United States, regard themselves as seriously handicapped in the choice of a vocation. The employment problems of immigrants, particularly the children of immigrants, have long given concern; and with people like those of Porto Rico, citizens of the United States yet not in quite the same status as either natives or immigrants, there are special problems, both in the country of origin and in the states to which they go; while in the Southwest, and to a certain extent elsewhere, the Mexican complicates the occupational situation.

The physically disabled man or woman, whose ability to carry on his chosen vocation has been impaired, needs vocational guidance as a part of his program of vocational rehabilitation. This guidance is being given by the individual case method in the forty-four states cooperating in a national vocational rehabilitation program.[1]

Furthermore, it is impossible to give full consideration to vocational guidance in the United States without some ac-

[1] *Special Education. The Handicapped and the Gifted.* New York, The Century Co., 1931.

count of the activities of a number of national agencies, apart from the public schools: the Young Men's Christian Association, the Young Women's Christian Association, Boy Scouts and Girl Scouts, Kiwanis, the Catholic parochial schools, orphanages, and other institutions and organizations that carry on some kind of a guidance program and are making a contribution to the vocational guidance movement.

Again, there is the situation of millions of rural boys and girls, nearly half the total in the nation, who have been only slightly affected in the past by developments in guidance work. Now, as part of a program for a more adequate provision of education, their vocational needs are beginning to receive consideration.

THE AMERICAN INDIAN

In the past year or two attention has been drawn to the needs of the American Indians, especially Indian children and youth. Among these needs a program of vocational guidance is regarded as particularly important. "Finding employment for Indians that will enable them to support themselves by their own labor at least in accordance with a minimum standard of health and decency must be a major activity of the Indian Service," asserted the Lake Mohonk Conference of 1929. "In the case of the Indian youth," the conference resolutions went on to say, "this activity should include not only vocational training and vocational guidance, but actual placement in productive enterprise with the necessary follow-up to see that the boys and girls are satisfactorily established in their new environments." Commissioner Charles J. Rhoads said in a statement issued in August, 1930: "We propose to give the Indian a practical education and to assist him in finding and keeping a job."

Careful study by a competent survey staff has recently shown that vocational guidance needs are met only partially in the Indian schools. The eight or ten occupations for which training has been provided form but a small fraction

of the hundreds or even thousands of distinctive vocations in modern industrial life, in many of which Indians are already engaged. Moreover, the industrial training provided by the Indian school has too often been in a field where appropriate arrangements have not been made with the industry outside to give reasonable assurance that the boy or girl will be able to secure employment when the training is completed. Training standards have been low, and too much dependence has been placed upon bringing the student back into the Indian school rather than upon adjusting him satisfactorily to an occupation outside. This situation is made still more difficult by the shyness and nonaggressiveness of many Indian boys and girls, especially those from tribes that have only recently come in contact with whites. Little effort has been made to study the possible market for the services of Indians in types of work for which they have a special adaptability. The so-called *outing system,* regardless of what it was in the old days at Carlisle, in recent years has been mainly a plan for hiring out boys for odd jobs and girls for domestic service rather than a method of vocational guidance. Especially unfortunate has been the attempt to furnish vocational guidance for Indian youth without the necessary qualified personnel for such work. Recently steps have been taken to remedy this situation by recruiting a staff of guidance and placement officers some of whom will have appropriate training and experience.

Other needs that will have to be met before a vocational guidance program for Indian boys and girls can be made even reasonably effective are: raising the educational qualifications of school principals and teachers, especially teachers of industrial work; helping the present staff to acquire supplementary qualifications in the field of guidance; providing, in connection with public schools and day schools, school social workers who can help in the personality adjustment that is an unusually important element in the placement of the Indian; modification of the entire educational program to bring Indian children and Indian youth into more con-

stant touch with white civilization and make them therefore better able to enter vocations on something like an equal basis with whites. The present boarding schools, which still care for an abnormally large proportion of Indian boys and girls, interfere seriously with vocational as well as other forms of adjustment, and should give way as rapidly as possible to public day schools where the Indian boy and girl will mingle naturally with white children of the community. It is also important that any vocational guidance program for Indians be administered in close touch with established local agencies, utilizing existing resources rather than setting up duplicate facilities.

NEGRO YOUTH

Probably the most significant single fact that can be recorded in connection with vocational guidance for Negro youth is the pessimism of many leaders of the race. They find colored boys and girls discriminated against in employment in many communities, regardless of the section of the country, to an extent amounting virtually to vocational boycott. Nevertheless, the success of the Negroes of the United States in making their way into every possible occupation probably has never been paralleled in world history. Moreover, some very successful guidance programs have been carried out by or for Negroes. Institutions like Hampton Institute do not regard themselves as specifically furnishing vocational guidance to their students; but the diversified types of practical training provided by this and other well-known colored schools, rooted as they have been in actual needs rather than tradition, have opened the way to many vocations at various levels of educational preparation, in a far more effective fashion than has such training in most schools for whites.

That there is serious occupational limitation for Negro youth has been established by numerous reliable studies. A Pittsburgh survey of 1929 seems to show that the colored workers are carrying more than their proportionate share

of the employment risks of the community, and that Negro youth are distinctly handicapped occupationally; of 7,679 Negro employees out of the total of 105,596 workers studied, 5,163 were common laborers, 2,372 were in the semi-skilled group, and only 144 were skilled mechanics; and 65 per cent of the Negro workers were employed by the smaller concerns, which have the greater number of business failures and offer the less steady employment.

On the other hand, studies by the National Urban League show considerable variation in different cities. The University of Pittsburgh was found to be admitting colored students with what appeared to be a fair representation except in the school of medicine, where there has been no colored student since 1914; applications are refused, and colored students are not permitted to secure training in Pittsburgh hospitals. Grand Rapids, Michigan, was reported as having "no discrimination as to schooling or vocational training," colored youth being as well represented proportionally as whites. The chief need was declared to be "for openings of employment that will enable trained Negroes to use their education."

A recent study made by Frances Gunner, General Secretary of the colored branch, Young Women's Christian Association in Brooklyn, New York, of the employment problems of Negro women in Brooklyn, analyzes in detail the specific discrimination against Negro workers as revealed in newspaper want-ad advertising, the experience of employment agencies, and case studies of employed girls. Miss Gunner found that Negro girls and women are handicapped in job-seeking by the following factors: (1) A large proportion of the jobs advertised in newspapers are not open to colored applicants. (2) Employment agencies doing placement work for colored women deal almost entirely with household employment, and the colored girl trained or qualified for other openings has serious difficulty in finding opportunity, since many agencies specializing in business or professional placement, particularly those run for financial profit, exclude Negro applicants. (3) The occupational status of Negro

women is limited by prejudice, tradition, and lack of experience. (4) A number of vocational schools discourage or refuse to admit Negro students. (5) Employers and personnel managers are slow in consenting to give colored women a trial. (6) Vocational guidance experts connected with the schools admit that they have little contact with colored girls.

Miss Gunner's recommendations were that vocational guidance should be emphasized in organizational work for Negroes, beginning with the grade school; that in vocational training there should be constant emphasis on the highest degree of proficiency and standards of work, since colored workers usually have to be more efficient than white workers on the same job in order to hold the position; and that the public, particularly employers and personnel managers, should be educated as to the justice and practical value of hiring colored workers according to their ability to do the work rather than according to preconceived racial bias.

A study of *Nationality, Color, and Economic Opportunity in the City of Buffalo* made for the University of Buffalo in 1927 revealed "clear evidence that the Negro and immigrant are economically disadvantaged as compared with the native white of native parentage," and that "the Negro is more seriously handicapped than the immigrant, the latter showing a tendency steadily to advance to a higher level, while the Negro seems still to be confined within narrowly circumscribed limits." The author, Niles Carpenter, says:

> Particularly impressive is the evidence of the rigidly limited range of occupations available to the colored woman. In gaining a livelihood she must needs confine herself almost exclusively to domestic and personal service, hotel and restaurant work, and similar types of work, no matter what her own preferences, capacity, or training may be.

The study also calls attention to the important subjective reaction of both the Negro and the immigrant to the limitations of race and nationality, pointing out that the worker often feels himself victimized on account of these when in

fact he may not be, or at any rate assigns a greater weight to manifestations of prejudice and intolerance than would an outside observer.

Another study, that of Mrs. Alice Brown Fairclough, made at New York University in 1929, laid considerable stress on the variety of occupations engaged in by Negro women in New York City, pointing out that the opportunities in the professions appear to be decreasing, but that the opportunities for commercial workers are increasing, and that the trend among Negro workers is more and more away from domestic work to the industries. An analysis of the girls in the group studied who had attended junior and senior high schools showed little or no connection between the school work and occupation.

It is generally admitted that little use has so far been made of vocational guidance in schools as part of the Negro employment problem, though observers both within and without the race advocate it. Studies recently made by T. J. Woofter, Jr., for the Rosenwald Fund led to the conclusion that "the Negroes are losing out in the skilled business trades in the South where they once constituted a substantial upper middle class of citizens"; that part, at least, of the cause for this is lack of interest, and that this lack a junior vocational guidance program could remedy. Baltimore, Maryland, reports effective use of the trade school to which youths are sent by the vocational counselors, and Little Rock, Arkansas, announces that vocational guidance is to play an important part in the new Negro high school which the Rosenwald Fund has aided. During the summer of 1930 the same fund made possible the attendance of heads of colored high schools at university courses in guidance. The Paul Laurence Dunbar Apartments, in New York City, have found it necessary to organize a placement service for their tenants, and some of the work done is for juniors.

In the spring of 1930 the National Urban League sponsored a vocational opportunity campaign. This campaign developed out of a conviction that "the occupational problems of Negroes require proper interpretation by employers,

interracial committees, social workers, Negroes themselves, and all others who are concerned either with the progress of the race or with the improvement of economic conditions generally." The League sought to emphasize the significance of work and wages in the scheme of life for all peoples, particularly the American Negro, and to "expose the fallacies respecting the ability of Negroes to do only the laborious and menial types of work they are most often permitted to do."

The conference of the League at Buffalo, New York, in June, 1930, was devoted almost entirely to the subject of vocational opportunities for Negro workers. At this conference Harold A. Lett, of Pittsburgh, described the exclusion policy that, in a city like Pittsburgh, reaches down into the counseling, training, and placement program, leading school authorities, Mr. Lett asserted, to take the stand that "it is absolutely impossible to place the Negro youth; that it is useless to try; and that the schools are not justified in wasting money to give training which cannot be employed." The findings committee of the Buffalo conference went on record as favoring vocational guidance programs as "a much-needed step in the dilemma in which Negro boys and girls find themselves," and urged that schools and colleges, including public school systems, revise their practices and policies so as to make them fit the present-day needs of Negro young people.

The National Urban League has also sponsored efforts to direct the attention of Negroes to the necessity for training in occupations already familiar to them and in new ones which might be opened up if they were prepared. The Chicago Urban League, for example, has for two years conducted a course in salesmanship which constituted guidance in the direction of a comparatively new field for Negroes as well as training them for it. In St. Louis, Missouri, conferences with building mechanics and waiters have been held. In Chicago; Omaha, Nebraska; St. Louis; White Plains, New York; Minneapolis, Minnesota; New York City, and several other cities, household employees and em-

Courtesy Children's Bureau

PRACTICAL TRAINING IN BRICKLAYING IN A CITY VOCATIONAL SCHOOL

ployers have met together to improve the relationships among themselves. Chicago has been registering waiters and prospective waiters for "advancement in the waiter's craft" by means of "a joint enterprise of craft education," the plan having been made possible by the cooperation of the Urban League, the Waiters' and Cooks' Progressive Association, the Board of Education, Hotel Employers, and the Hotel Waiters Association.

It seems clear from a review of the material so far available on vocational guidance among Negroes that there is a serious need for guidance as a part of the educational program, particularly at the secondary school level; that public educational systems will have to scrutinize more carefully than they have done in the past the occupational conditions in their local community and elsewhere as a necessary preliminary to adequate and serviceable vocational preparation; and that industries and businesses will have to re-examine their policy as to types of employment available for Negroes as well as whites. The method of the National Urban League in undertaking careful studies of the actual situation is commended as affording the only sound basis for a better program of vocational guidance for Negro youth.

PORTO RICANS IN CONTINENTAL UNITED STATES

The experience of Porto Ricans in continental United States is still further illustrative of occupational difficulties that arise from differences of national or racial origin. Coming from Porto Rico, where, as noted in the recent educational survey by the International Institute of Teachers College, Columbia University, vocational direction and vocational preparation have been among the most conspicuous lacks of the educational program, Porto Rican youth are likely to be handicapped in preparing for and securing employment. In New York City, notwithstanding the conspicuous success of many Porto Ricans, a large number of social agencies have for some time been concerned with what they call *the Porto Rican problem,* and with conditions of health

and economic deficiency that definitely affect the employment of many Porto Ricans, including young people.

No satisfactory economic program has yet been worked out for Porto Rico itself, and among those who come to New York City from the Island there are naturally many who have been most unsuccessful economically at home. The regular guidance program of the schools normally should take care of these cases, but unless teachers, counselors, and placement officers understand the special difficulties of personality, health, and language that are likely to exist, these Porto Rican boys and girls will not make a satisfactory adjustment to American occupational conditions.

MEXICAN YOUTH

Schools in southwestern United States have had a special situation to handle in the Mexican boys and girls who have but recently come over the border to enter the industrial and agricultural life of their northern neighbor. For example, the head of the Forsythe Memorial School for Spanish girls, writing from Los Angeles, says:

> Many Mexicans enter California to work in the fields and orchards. After they have been in this country a little while and have learned the language they want more steady work than is offered in agriculture. They also want to live in a more permanent location, where the children will have better educational facilities. The result is that they flock to the cities, because there are more openings in the city.

Various proposals have been made on the problem of Mexican boys and girls. Pointing out that one of the most unfavorable factors is the transient life of many Mexican families in the United States, Lacy Simms, of Firman House, Chicago, shows how difficult it is for the children to be in school or adjust themselves to any kind of a continued educational program. "Anything which can be done to provide steady employment should be done," says Mr. Simms, adding that at present Mexicans are competing with other Mexicans, with disastrous results to both. The Manual

School for Spanish-American Boys at Albuquerque, New Mexico, tries to put before Spanish-speaking boys "as wide a range as possible of vocations." "I do not believe in limiting these boys to any trade or trades," Superintendent H. C. Donaldson says, "but I do want to offer them the best possible chance to fit themselves to take their place as intelligent citizens and to earn a fair living."

That guidance problems among Spanish-speaking people, while acute among recently arrived Mexican youth, are by no means confined to them, is emphasized by R. N. McLean, of the Presbyterian Board of National Missions. Mr. McLean says:

> We have in California, New Mexico, Colorado, and Texas, communities which are made up of some of the original Spanish-speaking people in these states. In Texas and California they have been fairly well assimilated; in Colorado and New Mexico they still live their isolated lives and are in many cases even more backward than the majority of Mexican immigrants who have come to us during the last ten or twenty years. I know of no young people who are more retarded than those from the 'plaza' communities, remote from automobile highways and railroads, in the Rocky Mountain area in the northern part of New Mexico.

An example of the type of study useful in Spanish-speaking communities for vocational guidance purposes is the survey made of Chacon, New Mexico, under the direction of Professor C. D. Bohannon, for the Presbyterian Board of National Missions. In its insistence upon economic considerations and the relation of the educational program for adolescents to economic needs, the Chacon survey illustrates the kind of investigation everywhere necessary, but especially where racial, national, or linguistic complications appear, as a preliminary to establishing a program of vocational education and vocational guidance.

AGENCIES OUTSIDE THE SCHOOL

"Vocational guidance has probably been too much considered the province of the school," Helen Fuller, of the

New York Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor, said at the 1930 convention of the National Vocational Guidance Association. In any case, certain well known national organizations have been actively concerned with guidance.

The Young Men's Christian Association

Guidance, including vocational guidance, has had a prominent place in the work of the Young Men's Christian Association from the earliest beginnings. *Find Yourself* campaigns have been carried on for many years, with an increasing attention to the technical problems involved, and in June, 1929, the Association held its first national conference dealing specifically with questions in the domain of guidance. Some idea of the extent of the work in one limited field is indicated by the figures on employment work for boys: Between May 1, 1929, and May 1, 1930, 17,805 boys seventeen years of age and under were placed by the employment departments; 15,174 from cities, 530 from town and country, 378 from railroad branches, and 1,423 from colored branches. In addition, 17,710 vocational interviews with boys were reported.

Although they still carry on some short-time intensive campaigning, Y. M. C. A. boys' divisions "do considerable vocational and other forms of guidance throughout the year," reports C. C. Robinson, secretary for employed boys. The following is a selected list of cities and towns where the association is including vocational guidance as a part of its program: Birmingham, Ala.; Boston, Mass.; Camden, N. J.; Chicago, Ill.; Cincinnati, Cleveland, Columbus, Dayton, Ohio; Denver, Col.; Detroit, Mich.; Dover, N. J.; Durham, N. C.; Easton, Pa.; Freehold, N. J.; Hackensack, N. J.; Lancaster, N. H.; Massillon, Ohio; Milwaukee, Wis.; Minneapolis, Minn.; Montclair, New Brunswick, N. J.; New Haven, Conn.; New York City; Norfolk, Va.; Norwalk, Conn.; Oakland, Calif.; Portland, Ore.; Providence, R. I.; Richmond, Va.; St. Louis, Mo.; Seattle,

Wash.; South Bend, Ind.; Springfield, Mass.; Toledo, Ohio; White River Junction, Vt.; Wichita, Kan. The Cincinnati association maintains "a well-coached and thoroughly-informed staff" of some fifty men for volunteer counseling, and these are used on request in the high schools, with employed boys at association branches, and with groups in Hamilton County. This association holds an annual vocational institute to which are invited the fifty volunteer counselors, all local Y. M. C. A. secretaries engaged in guidance work, and persons in public schools and colleges concerned with guidance. Cumulative record cards are now being used by the association centers in their guidance work.

Another recent development in Young Men's Christian Association guidance work is "the clinical method of vocational guidance" as exemplified by the Camden branch. The purpose of the clinic is to "apply what science has to offer in knowledge of occupational requirements for entry, necessary training for progress, and possibilities of individual expansion within the job." The staff includes a psychologist who is the director, an assistant who gives tests, and a recorder who is responsible for all clinical records, case files, and correspondence. The clinic is supplied with such "psychological tests as have proved of validity in guidance," including a series of performance tests as well as a selection of paper tests. Dr. Morris S. Viteles, of the University of Pennsylvania, who organized and directs the clinic, emphasizes the need for a shift "away from consideration of the group as a unit of guidance to the more complete study of the individual."

In a description of the clinic procedure, W. P. Partenheimer, boys' work secretary, includes the following steps: a preliminary interview at which a form is filled in that gives a report of the educational, occupational, medical, and social history, and vocational interest of the subject; a thorough interview with the psychologist, at which the subject's interests and ambitions are discussed; performance and other tests; further interview and tests, after an interval. Next comes a conference by all who have worked on the case,

which results in a definite diagnosis and recommendation in so far as this is possible. The associate director takes over the problem of placement, and of maintaining close contact with the individual. Developments are recorded as discovered, and a periodic check-up is made to help the individual maintain the program. Home visitations and interviews with employers are frequently made. Investigation is conducted in many phases of training to discover new opportunities.

During the five years that the Camden clinic has been operating, 310 different cases have been handled, or an average of sixty-two new cases each season.

Notable among experiments in guidance now being undertaken by the Young Men's Christian Association is the three-year program nearly completed in New York City, in which an attempt has been made to interview every member in three large local branches, with a thorough follow-up on all needs and problems revealed, including vocational and educational guidance and social and personal adjustment. A special staff for this purpose has been employed at an approximate cost of $50,000 a year for the three-year period.

Just how much this experiment will have dealt with boys under eighteen is not yet known. Although the emphasis was placed upon young men, many thousands of boys eighteen years and under have been interviewed, and the technical results of the experiment will eventually be made available to all Y. M. C. A. groups.

A study by R. W. Bullock, national secretary for work with colored boys, deals with the comparative ambitions and opportunities of colored and white high school boys in the same communities.

The Young Women's Christian Association

Work of the Young Women's Christian Association with juniors through the employment bureaus is determined by local conditions, the national policy being to cooperate with the schools and other organizations doing junior place-

ment work. No separate figures are available to indicate which placements are of juniors, but for 1928 the total number of applicants for 169 cities was 212,383, with 100,872 placements. There is some indication that the work is reaching out more satisfactorily to the smaller places; 75 towns under 25,000 population reported 18,625 applicants and 63 of these towns reported 9,938 placements. "Where the schools do no placement, or where there is no other junior service, large numbers of young and first workers apply to the Y. W. C. A.," says the official report.

Many more juniors are reached with some vocational assistance through the Girl Reserve groups. It has been estimated that "probably a majority of the 240,000 girls comprising the membership of the Girl Reserve groups are during each year exposed to vocational information through the various activities of the Y. W. C. A.," though not always individually, as the officials frankly admit. For several years past a counselor has been included on the staff of the eleven Girl Reserve summer conferences. These conferences for high school girls are held in different sections of the country under the sponsorship of the national department. "The best leadership available is used and the program has included both group work and individual counseling."

Within recent years three associations have given up their employment work and added vocational counselors to their staff. In New Haven, where the pioneer work was done, the counselor offered her services to the high school for both individual counseling and group work. Cambridge, Massachusetts, has had a part-time counselor who has worked with individuals and who has also developed and carried through some plans for group counseling with girl reserves and older girls. This has been done in connection with the Harvard Graduate School of Education, and competent observers regard it as a valuable example of what organizations like the Young Women's Christian Association could do with trained counselors.

The Young Women's Christian Association is also one

of the few agencies that concern themselves with the vocational guidance problems of Indians and Negroes.

That there is demand within the Association for considerable development in vocational guidance is indicated by the following recommendation which the National Council of the Business and Professional Women's Assembly brought to the national convention held in Detroit in April, 1930:

Inasmuch as unemployment has again emerged as a major concern of the Business and Professional Assembly, and

Inasmuch as there is a general feeling on the part of the Assembly that an extension of the facilities for vocational guidance and adjustment would help materially in the solution of this problem among clerical workers,

The Business and Professional Assembly wishes to register this conviction with the Convention as a whole and urges further, that the Convention go on record as being in favor of intensive promotion of more adequate provision for vocational guidance and adjustment. The Assembly recommends specifically that local associations be urged to:

> Ascertain what vocational guidance facilities are afforded by their local public school systems and to work for the introduction of such facilities where they do not now exist;
>
> Work in cooperation with other organizations for the establishment of vocational adjustment facilities where they do not now exist, for the older business girls not cared for by the school system;
>
> Take every possible step toward the raising of the standard of work in the employment bureaus maintained under their own auspices, particularly in working toward an adequate provision in the budget and the employment of scientifically trained workers.

Boy Scouts

"We want to help boys leaving school to escape the evils of 'blind-alley' occupations," says the official statement of the Boy Scouts. Little special machinery has been set up, however. E. S. Martin, executive secretary of the editorial board, says:

The plan as I see it contemplates much more than the placement

of a boy in a vocation. We have, connected with our local councils throughout the United States, business and professional men known as counselors. In some places there are only a few of these men, in others there are dozens, who hold membership certificates as counselors in the various Merit Badge subjects.

It is proposed that boys twelve years of age and up shall be led to make contacts with these men, in order that the men may act as advisers. It may be only in connection with an attempt to discover what a summer's vacation employment will be, or it may be a part-time job, Saturdays and evenings, in order to earn some money for the family expenses, personal expenses, or to test out the boy's aptitude for some particular line of work. Again, it may be in connection with the boy's remaining in school, and our first care is to see that the boy does this just so far as is possible. It may be that the counselor will advise the boy to remain in high school, go to college, business school, technical school, or it may be that home conditions are such that the boy must determine some line of work and continue his education outside of employment hours. This may result in the counselor advising the boy to go to trade school, to night school, to summer school.

The vocational pamphlets that are available from the Boy Scout organization for such fields as electricity, plumbing, and journalism merely suggest the possibilities of an occupational literature not yet realized. The instructions to persons preparing merit badge pamphlets, however, contain much of the modern point of view, and suggest that with the cooperation of workers in occupational studies an unusually valuable service could be rendered in vocational guidance. The organization has also given some attention to the vocational needs of the "Lone Scout" and guidance in rural communities, but this, like the rest of the work, would profit greatly from a more direct connection with the developments in vocational guidance of the past few years.

Girl Scouts

Like the Boy Scouts, the Girl Scouts have a definite interest in vocational guidance, and through the merit badges furnish training that extends knowledge of some vocations; but they have made little attempt to work out a comprehen-

sive program. The current manual points out that the achievement of a proficiency badge "does not mean that the wearer is an expert in the subject, but that she has taken enough intelligent interest to learn the main principles and to make practical use of them." The material used in preparation for tests for business woman, craftsman, dressmaker, photographer, and telegrapher includes lists of reference books dealing with these fields as vocations.

Pioneer Youth [1]

"Education of youth for social usefulness" is the stated purpose of Pioneer Youth, organized primarily for workers' children between the ages of nine and sixteen. While not designed to furnish vocational guidance in the ordinary sense, Pioneer Youth Clubs build their programs out of "activities vital to the children" and "provide opportunities for the creative development of their interests and capacities." A somewhat unusual feature is the range of occupational groups: in the summer of 1928, 88 per cent of the children at the experimental camp were from homes representing fifty-four different local trade unions.

Kiwanis

Since 1925 Kiwanis has had an international committee on vocational guidance and placement which stimulates local clubs to an interest and if possible activity in this field. Over eighty cities are listed where the Kiwanis club carries on some kind of a specific program in guidance, with activities ranging all the way from simple talks on vocations and individual help for wayward boys, to series of vocational lectures in high schools and regularly established junior placement committees. For example, the Atlantic City Kiwanis Club has had leading business and professional people speak at the general assemblies of the local high school, the en-

[1] Not to be confused with the Pioneers (Y. M. C. A.) or the Young Pioneers of America (Communist).

tire student body of 2,100 being present. The vocational guidance committee of the club furnished a definite outline to the speakers, so that the information furnished would be reasonably comparable for the different vocations. After the address in each case the small number of students definitely interested in the vocation presented would meet and discuss it in more detail, and after this any who were still further interested had the assistance of the counselor service of the Kiwanis Club, which gave them the benefit of continued information and individual guidance through a specialist in the vocation under consideration. "We expect to extend our work to the Vocational School, Young Men's and Young Women's Christian Associations, Young Men's and Young Women's Hebrew Associations, DeMolay, and Knights of Columbus junior organizations," says Thomas A. Barker, chairman of the local committee.

The Kiwanis Club of New York City has prepared and published a series of vocational bulletins "for the purpose of helping the young men of Greater New York with their problem of selecting and preparing for a vocation." Bulletin No. 4, for example, deals with the building trades, and was prepared by Joseph Jeffries, under the direction of the National Junior Personnel Service. Others of the bulletins deal with law, engineering, printing trades, and aviation.

Kiwanis also publishes "a working program of vocational guidance" for the use of club committees, in which needs and opportunities are considered, an attempt is made to define vocational guidance, the program of the international committee is explained, and the qualifications of "the vocational guide" are discussed. One of the major factors emphasized in the annual report of the chairman of the international committee is the need for "a proper tie-up between the Kiwanis Club and the local school system."

Business and Professional Women's Clubs

Vocational guidance in the National Federation of Business and Professional Women's Clubs is largely the out-

growth of a decade of experience with the administration of scholarship and loan funds for girls needing additional preparation before entering business. In 1928 a "survey of vocational facilities" was undertaken, to occupy three years. The procedure is described as follows by Frances Cummings, educational secretary:

> First the clubs were asked to examine the vocational literature in local libraries and actually to list the titles of these books under classified headings. Two hundred clubs have so far engaged in this survey. As fast as completed each club was provided with a check list of books for comparison with local lists—an approved bibliography for a business woman's vocational bookshelf.
>
> The second phase of this survey has to do with the agencies for vocational guidance and placement. The clubs were asked to list these agencies, and to fill out brief schedules for each agency which called for certain specific facts, such as a lay person might readily secure.

Some of the results of this survey, Miss Cummings reports, are that it has induced many of the club members to examine critically the vocational books available to the young people in their towns; members have met high school deans and others giving special attention to guidance, and have come to know commercial agencies of various standards of excellence; and clubs have passed on to more active guidance programs.

Cooperation with the schools is stressed. The programs included talks to high school and college students, vocational conferences in the schools, affiliation of individual members with local branches of the National Vocational Guidance Association, formation of occupational groups with "occupational advisers," and research.

Altrusa

Vocational guidance was established as a national policy by the National Association of Altrusa Clubs in 1924. The National Policy Committee report of 1929–1930 lists by states the activities in vocational guidance carried on by the clubs all over the United States. These included talks on vo-

cational guidance, supporting school work in guidance, job analysis, scholarships and loan funds, placement, and vocational surveys. The committee urged each local club to adopt, from a general plan, such details as would meet its needs. The general plan included such items as: educating the club concerning the work of its members and concerning phases of vocational guidance new to the club that might prove useful; maintaining scholarship and loan funds to help girls prepare for their life work; assistance in placement of girls; formation of study groups within the club for those interested in specific lines of vocational guidance; study of the work of other groups.

Order of DeMolay

A printed vocational interview form is used by the Order of DeMolay, an organization with more than 1,350 chapters in 1,225 American and Canadian towns and cities, "the great bulk of which, I am sure," writes Roy E. Dickerson, director of activities for the order, "have no vocational guidance work in the public schools." Even if vocational guidance were a part of the public school program in these places, he adds, it would be unavailable to the members, since more than a third of them are employed full time. The membership of DeMolay covers the ages from sixteen to twenty-one, inclusive; approximately 500,000 youth of these ages have been initiated, and there is an alumni organization made up of those who have become twenty-one and have therefore retired from active membership. The vocational interview form referred to includes the following directions to the interviewer:

> The purpose of this interview is to give this young man an opportunity to learn from you some of the more important facts about your vocation and the qualifications for it. Please make a point of telling him the things you think he ought to know, whether he asks you about them or not. Please bear in mind that the best service you can render this young man is to give him the facts from which he may make an intelligent decision.

After the interview we would be glad to have you return the Information Sheet, together with any remarks you care to offer and particularly any suggestions you have made about further education or preparation this young man should have, where and how he might get it, and how he could go about getting started in this vocation or learning more of his own fitness for it.

INSTITUTIONS AND VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE

When the New York Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor began, in 1926, to employ a vocational counselor, it was on the theory that vocational guidance is one of the best ways of meeting the problem of dependency in the next generation. "These children who develop some special skill or ability directed toward a specific occupation," says one of the staff of the Association, "are less likely when adults to find themselves unable to adjust to the economic demands of the world, less apt to be out of work than untrained and unfitted persons, less likely to become charges on the community." [1]

Work of Orphanages

It is on something of the same principle that institutions having to do with orphaned and dependent or delinquent children are more and more tending to become interested in the successful vocational adjustment of the youth in their care. "Every institution which is responsible for the care, education, and vocational placement of children is concerned with vocational guidance plans, however formally or informally these may be worked out," says Elsa Ueland, head of Carson College, Flourtown, Pennsylvania. She adds: "Our children have quite a variety of work experiences, both with us and with short jobs outside; so that they have 'vocational glimpses'; and then, as with others, much of our vocational guidance is still just the old trial and error method. I think our experience is paralleled by that of

[1] *Vocational Guidance Magazine,* April, 1930, p. 331.

many other institutions, probably of all the institutions that are members of the Child Welfare League of America."

Orphanages and schools for orphaned children take varying views of their obligation with respect to vocational guidance. The Hershey Industrial School, Hershey, Pennsylvania, has a "personnel department which makes a thorough investigation of all applicants, and minutely detailed records are kept on family history and all other relationships with our students. Upon leaving they have always a job secured." At Homewood Terrace, the institutional plant of the Pacific Hebrew Orphan Asylum and Home Society, San Francisco, "the policy with regard to vocational counseling is much the same as that of any intelligent private family, to discover the interests and special ability of each child and to tie them together in a vocational objective if possible; or else to develop in the child an interest or an ambition commensurate with his ability." The superintendent makes an interesting comment:

> An effort, unsuccessful on the whole, at least as yet, to have trades regarded as respectable, is being made. The children are told that if the wage of an apprentice is not a living wage, it will be supplemented by Homewood Terrace, just as a college training is subsidized; learning a trade is considered and treated in the same category as higher education. This has been carried out in practice. Nevertheless, few have as yet chosen trades. Even those who do excellent work in the Technical Training School slide into white-collar jobs. Business conditions, however, have much to do with this and as banks, insurance, and brokerage houses employ fewer boys or pay lower wages, more boys will enter the trades for which they are fitted. With girls, the social caste in vocational placement is even more baffling, as it quite permanently overrides the claims of adjustment by capacity or special ability.

State Institutions

How state institutions for behavior problem children are giving individual rather than mass treatment, especially in vocational adjustment, is indicated by the program of the

New York State Training School for Girls, Hudson, New York, where girls from the juvenile courts are received. The superintendent, Mrs. Fannie French Morse, writes:

Six and one-half years ago this institution was one of the old reformatory type, even of the extreme type. No educational program, the girls enduring incarceration; the institution a machine with its leveling process of mass handling; no social outlook for the girl; its conception of her as bad, needing punishment; her incarceration representing the safety of society.

Today we are an educational institution. We are adjusting socially the girl viewed as needing opportunity and education; the girl is being trained according to her ability even into professional careers. Development into responsible young womanhood is supplanting former breaking-down processes.

Many of our girls are becoming outstanding in their employment, some of them receiving as high as $200 a month. The girl herself has become the most creative force in the institution.

At Jamesburg, New Jersey, the New Jersey State Home for Boys, "the boys are received, not as criminals, but as delinquents in need of definite training to help them to meet life's problems." Three types of school work and a wide range of vocational and industrial experiences have been organized, as described by the Director of Education, C. J. Merchant:

On his arrival a new boy is placed in the Reception Cottage, to which is attached a well-equipped hospital. Here the boy is given a thorough physical examination to determine any possible relationship existing between his physical condition and his delinquency. Such defects as diseased tonsils, decayed teeth, defective eyesight, are soon corrected. Complete studies are made by the medical, psychiatric, psychological, educational, and disciplinary departments, which, with the commitment, and a report of the home, furnished through the division of parole of the central department, form the basis of the information placed before the classification committee. This committee . . . decides upon a suitable type of treatment and a proper program of training, including a credit goal for conduct and effort as well as for accomplishment. This plan of training will also embody the consideration of the type of school work, vocational, exploratory,

or industrial assignment, depending on the boy's age, mentality, and physical make-up. . . .

The Academic School is prepared to furnish instruction to the verbal type boy from the second grade to the high school. The grades from the fourth up are organized under the Dalton plan, which places the responsibility for study and progress upon the individual boy. . . . Special classes are maintained for the mentally retarded and subnormal. . . . The Manual Education School provides organized educational work through the development of projects for the boys diagnosed non-verbal and recommended by the Psychological Clinic as in need of a different educational approach to the same educational objective. . . . Vocational guidance is offered through classroom and individual instruction with the aid of motion pictures covering studies of occupations and industries.

The maintenance and construction work of the institution furnish a wide range of industrial and vocational experience for the boys. Assignment to these various activities is made on the basis of the boy's individual requirements.

An institution which has had long and successful experience with the vocational and other adjustment of youth committed through the courts is Sleighton Farm, the girls' department of Glen Mills Reformatory, Darlington, Pennsylvania. One of the chief features of this institution is the follow-up of the girls sent into the city to work after a period spent at the farm. The girls are placed with reliable families who assume responsibility for them and cooperate with the farm in supervising their conduct. While studies that have been made have not been decisive as to whether the work at Sleighton Farm has prepared directly for a vocation, the evidence has been clear that the vast majority of these girls eventually become adjusted and lead normal and useful lives.

Catholic Parochial Schools

Parochial high schools under Catholic auspices are beginning to provide vocational guidance for their pupils. Fifteen of the replies from letters sent to 72 superinten-

dents of parochial school districts indicated that the schools were carrying on one or more vocational guidance activities. Three localities reported discussion of occupations in regular classes; 4 said they published studies of occupations for use in the schools; 12 reported group conferences to discuss occupations or occupational choices; 11 recorded organized plans whereby pupils have individual conferences with a vocational counselor; 2 have an organized employment service, and 9 have organized plans for giving scholarships to pupils. The Callahan High School of Philadelphia states: "Our program parallels closely in objectives and organization that of the Pennsylvania State Advisory Committee." This school cooperates with the Junior Employment Department of the city's Compulsory Attendance Bureau.

The Milwaukee Catholic High School Survey report says on vocational guidance: "Every high school should have at least one member of the faculty specially prepared for the work who will act as a vocational adviser to the students. Such an adviser must be well-informed regarding the opportunities which the city offers in the respective occupations and must know the qualifications required of those who plan to take up these vocations."

A recent thesis on *Stimulating Vocations to the Teaching Brotherhoods* by Brother Ambrose (Catholic University, 1929), emphasized the need for giving information to young people concerning the vocations within teaching brotherhoods and sisterhoods. Work has been done in the diocese of Brooklyn and the diocese of Pittsburgh with the following objectives: "The development of vocations for the priesthood, diocesan and regular, for the Brotherhoods and for the Sisterhoods, with attention also to the needs of Priests, Brothers, and Sisters in the foreign mission field." The methods suggested are information to be given in sermons by the priests, group talks, and personal interviews, a special time of year being set aside for this purpose, particularly among the adolescent pupils, beginning with the seventh grade.

GUIDANCE IN RURAL COMMUNITIES

It has been regarded as almost axiomatic in the vocational guidance movement that boys and girls in rural communities lack the opportunities that long have been available in urban situations. In part this is merely one phase of the general educational neglect that has characterized rural America; in part it reflects the unusual economic condition of agricultural regions. The earliest vocational guidance machinery was a feature of life in the larger industrial centers, reaching later into the school systems of smaller urban and suburban communities, and almost never getting into the rural school. Very recently, however, with more adequate studies of the educational and economic needs of country boys and girls, and the inauguration of state guidance programs in several states, rural vocational guidance has begun to receive more of the attention it deserves.

Rural Studies

Those familiar with the vocational guidance history of the past quarter of a century will recall that most of the better known early programs were preceded or accompanied by careful studies of school-leaving and employment. It is only recently that any such studies have been made for rural areas.

An organization with a long record of study of the vocational needs of rural youth is the Southern Woman's Educational Alliance, whose researches have recently culminated in a series of published reports, *Rural Girls in the City for Work, Mountain Schools,* and *Guiding Rural Boys and Girls.*[1] The first of these deals with the drift of the rural girl to the city, the assumption being that this is due to a type of unrest that has always characterized rural young people; that it at present affects girls even more than boys; and that "it is naturally most apparent among young people possessed of the most initiative and ambition, but it begins

[1] Hatcher, O. L., *Rural Girls in the City for Work; Mountain School; Guiding Rural Boys and Girls. See* Bibliography.

in the elementary grades and yields an increasing army of very young, untrained, and uninformed girls, taking their way to the city for whatever form of industrial occupation will receive them. There is also a steady procession of girls to the unstandardized private business schools, and another of those going to enter hospitals to become nurses."

The findings appear to confirm the impressions of many who have observed this drift to the city, that as standards of schooling are raised for urban children in certain industries, new recruits have to be sought in the rural districts, where the public has not been educated up to better requirements. Of 255 girls interviewed, 84 were in mill or factory work, 59 in stores in non-clerical work, 67 were in clerical or other work, or students in business colleges, 12 were waitresses, and 33 were in training to become nurses. Commenting on these findings Mrs. Anna L. Burdick, Federal Agent for Industrial Education for Girls and Women, says: "The list of occupations for the untrained girl from rural sections is about what would be found anywhere in the country. The degree to which any one prevails will depend on local opportunities. Where industrial employment is not available, domestic service will be followed by a larger number."

Adelaide Steele Baylor, of the Federal Board for Vocational Education, would add "hotel work and child nursing" to the occupations which rural girls are likely to enter in the city, and would emphasize occupations connected with factories and stores, especially five and ten cent stores.

In the second of the studies issued by the Southern Woman's Educational Alliance the occupational interests of mountain girls were asked for. Teaching, nursing, and missionary work led in the number of first preferences, accounting together for more than 70 per cent, with stenography for another 8 per cent of the girls. As a result of the investigation in this instance the Alliance put first among the outstanding needs of the school "an adequate guidance program," including school counseling, vocational information, and placement for both boys and girls.

Another organization whose research and experimental work has touched rural guidance, including vocational guidance, is the Commonwealth Fund, through the National Committee on Visiting Teachers. The three rural centers selected for visiting-teacher demonstrations were Monmouth County, New Jersey; Hudson County, Ohio, and Boone County, Missouri. The cases reported in *Children at the Crossroads* [1] involved personality difficulties and school and family situations chiefly, but they also call attention to the fundamental economic conditions in rural communities, the educational guidance that is especially necessary for country children, and the need for broadening the work of the school to include the more realistic interests of the community.

State Programs

While state programs of vocational guidance tend at first to reach the small town and village rather than the school in the open country, the ultimate effect should be to give rural boys and girls a better opportunity in both educational and vocational guidance. For the first time we are beginning to get reports of rural or small town guidance efforts that, however modest they may seem in the light of the needs, would have been unthinkable outside of large urban communities a decade ago. George E. Hutcherson, of the New York State Department of Education, reports organized plans for vocational guidance in places like Hadley-Lucerne, Monticello, Oxford, Painted Post, Wellsburg, and Keene Valley, all in New York State. From Keene Valley the report says: "We are offering vocational guidance for the first time this year. It is being offered to ninth year pupils, five periods a week for one semester. We plan to have an organized employment service; also a plan for scholarships."

Rockland County, New York, has recently appointed a county director of vocational guidance to serve a number of cooperating village and county schools. Pennsylvania has

[1] New York City, Commonwealth Fund, Division of Publications, 1930.

had an expanding guidance program, part of which has had to do with vocational guidance, since 1921, when a state supervisor of industrial education was authorized to begin developing this field. Rural possibilities are most evident in the county programs, whereby each county superintendent selects demonstration centers and organizes guidance programs in these centers. Between 1927 and 1930 the number of counties with county guidance programs increased from 8 to 48, and the number of teachers assigned to counseling in the smaller places increased from 81 to 278. In the fall of 1930, 15 counties were involved in a "county minimum" program, which covered pupil analysis, home-room guidance, information about school opportunities and occupations, counseling, books for educational, vocational, and social guidance, together with some form of parental education in guidance, teacher training for this field, and suitable county administration.

Pennsylvania has issued various publications to aid the local teachers and school officers in carrying out the guidance program. The eighth grade course in the study of occupations, issued in 1927 and now undergoing revision, is intended to be used in a weekly guidance period; it has for its general aim "purposeful choice and progress in education," and for its specific aims, "to study the major vocational fields and their correlation with courses of study in junior and senior high schools, special schools, colleges, and professional schools."

The courses in school opportunities and occupations, originally developed for the junior high schools of the state, are being adapted to other schools. The eighth grade course already referred to stresses "five main fields and three training levels," while the ninth grade course is "a study of those school opportunities and special divisions of occupations which are in accordance with the pupil's interests and the studies the pupil is taking in that grade."

Workers in guidance have recently been emphasizing the possibilities of the consolidated school, demanding for this type of school at least one teacher concerned with guidance

and a minimum vocational guidance library for the pupils. The tendency for rural and small town interests to merge has been noted. Hastings, Michigan, for example, has had for some years a "guidance day" for the county because of the shuttling back and forth of rural children. The increased school area makes possible a guidance program where it would otherwise be exceedingly difficult.

State educational programs in other states, notably those in which the American Association of University Women has recently been working for better rural schools, usually include some mention of vocational guidance with reference to rural as well as other schools. One of the major questions in the Vermont study, for example, concerns the adequacy of the provision for vocational guidance. In Oregon a program sponsored by the Oregon State College was so successful in Portland high schools that the school authorities made it applicable to "any high school in the state which desires to use this method of giving vocational guidance to its students." Here again the opportunity is likely to go first to the somewhat larger schools, but eventually it should work over to the smaller community and the rural boy and girl.

Rural Guidance Programs

Most of the recommendations that have been made involve the gradual application to small rural communities of a service comparable to that offered in better urban school systems, but based on ascertained rural needs. Doctor O. L. Hatcher, of the Southern Woman's Educational Alliance, sums up the needs of rural guidance as follows:

Promotion of the same spirit and program of research is needed for the sake of rural children, as that already launched in universities and city school systems, and centering around city children, as being more immediate and convenient. This need applies to the study of the rural child and of his environment, and also to the study of rural occupations. Cooperation of psychologists, foundations, and research groups should be sought for developing mental and

educational tests which are at least as well adjusted to rural children as those now available are to city children. Cooperation of colleges and universities in providing needed testing services not otherwise available to rural schools in their vicinity should be encouraged.

The installation, maintenance, and use of pupil case histories and of other adequate records should be promoted fully as much in rural schools as in city ones. This is especially urgent in view of the large turnover of rural teachers and the large amount of changing of schools by rural pupils.

Rural schools should have all possible aid in adjusting the educational process to the abilities and interests of the individual child, by substituting flexible subject groups for classification by grades, providing shop work and other "learning by doing. . . ." This means more money for equipment, if not more money for trained instructors.

As in cities, more attention should be given to arranging a fair balance in the curriculum content of rural high schools, to do justice to those pupils who go to college and those who do not.

Scholarships and loans should be made available for country boys and girls, at least in equal proportion to such provision for city ones and with understanding consideration of the rural handicaps. Every rural high school, and, preferably, every elementary school not combined with a high school, should provide itself with a library shelf showing catalogues of all higher academic and technical institutions in the state, and with those of selected ones outside. Pupils should be encouraged to write for their own copies of them and class discussions of them should be promoted.

There should be provided, both locally in counties and on a larger scale, through systematic occupational research, an adequate supply of information about rural occupations; also suitable books about urban occupations.

Individual counseling of rural boys and girls about their special vocational interests, their capacities, aptitudes, and ambitions, is a fundamental need in every rural school, as well as in every city one. The encouragement of higher stand-

ards of preparation for occupations is obligatory. There should be provision through county and local parent-teacher associations, and other civic organizations in the county and in neighboring towns and cities, of opportunities for rural boys and girls to make exploratory trips to see occupations in successful operation and to have tryouts in occupations which interest them. Cooperation of such county libraries as exist, of all city libraries providing rural service, of the American Library Association, and of any other available library agencies, should be enlisted for promoting the distribution of books giving vocational information written to interest young people.

Especially because of the large amount of early school leaving engendered in rural sections by economic pressure at home and indifference to education, there should be developed part-time and continuation schools, thoroughly adjusted to local and individual needs, gradually becoming a part of the equipment of every county; so should there be county placement bureaus, on the basis of the occupational research already recommended. One such bureau could serve all county schools, and it should be almost equally in touch with county vocational opportunities and with those in adjacent towns and cities, so as to help to regulate intelligently the present indiscriminate flow of youth to the city.

As a general aid to the reading interests of rural boys and girls there is needed the spread of fuller understanding and utilization of library resources, available through library commissions, neighboring city or town libraries, and so forth. Interpretation of the Rosenwald plan for county libraries and encouragement to counties to utilize this plan are especially needed.

Everything possible should be done to relieve the dearth of art instruction and of art objects in rural sections. The American Federation of Arts is interested in experimenting in loan exhibits to rural schools. . . . Art schools in the universities and colleges nearest to rural areas might be persuaded to give tryouts to pupils with artistic aptitudes.

It is hoped, too, that university extension courses for

art instruction can be made possible in many rural areas, at least until the schools themselves can provide such instruction. Similarly, extension courses in music are needed, both for individual pupils, if possible, and for group instruction, until modern methods of teaching public school music can be spread much more widely than they are at present. Meanwhile, departments of music in collegiate institutions might, oftener than they do, provide practice teaching in neighboring rural schools for their pupils.

It is hoped that the time is not far off when there will be a requirement made of rural teachers, if not of city ones as well, that they shall have taken one or more courses in educational and vocational guidance. . . . Extension courses in guidance should be given during the winter terms at central points in a county. County counselors or directors of guidance and research who can direct and coordinate the guidance efforts of individual schools are badly needed and should be introduced as rapidly as is practicable. Supervisors, properly trained, could in a good many instances take over this responsibility.

All forward looking forces in the school should concentrate upon the coordination of guidance activities, in the interest of improving future ways of country living, by utilizing the many existing resources for doing this.

Radio talks by properly informed and rural-minded technicians, for conveying suitable educational and vocational guidance information to rural boys and girls, with time allowed for answering questions received, could do much in the way of conveying information and in stimulating thought and balanced judgment. Similar but suitably adjusted radio talks, addressed to rural teachers and parents, are much needed.

The provision in rural schools of moving pictures about occupations regarding which rural children especially need information, would also do much to vitalize the teaching of occupations there.

That specific efforts are being made to include rural boys and girls in future developments in vocational guidance is

indicated by the fact that the National Vocational Guidance Association has recently set up a committee on vocational guidance in rural communities. Another nationally organized committee on state programs is recommending to each state commissioner of education or state superintendent of schools the designation of a member of the state staff to promote educational and vocational guidance, and to the United States Commissioner of Education the appointment of a specialist in vocational guidance for the Federal Office of Education.

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[1] This material has been brought up-to-date and will be published as a White House Conference Report, III D.

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APPENDIX

APPENDIX

A. Questionnaires Used to Secure Basic Data

To secure the data for this report questionnaires were sent to public and parochial schools, state departments of labor, social agencies, and employment agencies, as explained in the Foreword, page xiii. These questionnaires follow:

TO PUBLIC AND PAROCHIAL SCHOOLS

The first questionnaire was sent to public school systems and to parochial schools known to have vocational guidance systems.

CHECK (√) ANSWERS WHEN POSSIBLE

Date.....

City..... State.....

Name of person answering these questions.....

Position of person answering these questions.....

1. What is your present school population?.....
2. Have you any vocational counselors in your schools? { Yes..... / No..... }
   How many?.....
3. Are they on special licenses or certificates?.....
   Are they teachers assigned full time?.....
   Are they teachers assigned part time?.....
   If the last, what approximate number of periods per semester do they give to counseling?.....
4. Are they supervised by a director of guidance?.....
   Are they supervised by their individual principals?.....
   Are they supervised by both?.....
   Are they supervised by some one else?
   (Designate by whom).....

5. Are these vocational counselors assigned to confer with pupils:
   a. In elementary schools?.....
   b. In junior high schools?.....
   c. In senior high schools?.....
   d. In trade schools?.....
   e. In continuation schools?.....
   f. In evening schools?.....

6. Is an attempt made to reach every child in a given grade in so far as time permits? {Yes..... / No.....}

   If so, in what grade?.....; or is service reserved for children who are having trouble in getting adjusted to their school work? {Yes..... / No.....}

7. In schools where there are vocational counselors is it the policy to refer children wishing to leave school to go to work to the vocational counselor? {Yes..... / No.....}

8. In schools where there are no vocational counselors is it the policy to refer these children to a central counseling bureau? {Yes..... / No.....}

9. Is a special course in Occupations given? {Yes..... / No.....}; if so,

   In what grade or grades?.....
   By vocational counselors?.....
   By teachers?..... (Designate which—
   i.e., home-room, English, Civics, etc.).....
   If by teachers, are teachers chosen because of:
   Special qualifications.....
   Interest in subject.....
   Relation to subject they teach regularly
   Time available on their programs.....
   How long is the course: 1 year..... 1 semester.....
   less than 1 semester.....

10. Is information about occupations included in courses in Civics, English, etc.? {Yes..... / No.....}

    (Specify which).....

11. Do vocational counselors make Occupational studies? { Yes / No }

Approximately what per cent of their time is given to this?.....

12. Is there a special staff for making Occupational studies? { Yes / No }

Are they on special licenses or certificates?.....

Are they teachers assigned full time?.....

Are they teachers assigned part time?.....

13. Are these studies drafted for the direct use of:

School children?.....

Teachers?.....

Vocational counselors?.....

Working children?.....

Placement workers?.....

Others?.....

14. Is there a central psychological bureau in your school? { Yes / No }

15. Are psychological tests given by: Psychologist? { Yes / No }

Are they on special license or certificate? { Yes / No }

Vocational counselors? { Yes / No }

Teachers assigned full or part time to this work? { Yes / No }

Is the work of such teachers or counselors supervised by a psychologist or psychological department? { Yes / No }

16. Is there an attempt throughout the school system to test all children of a particular grade? { Yes / No }

If so, what grade or grades?.....

Or are tests given only in case of individual need? { Yes / No }

17. What group tests are most frequently used?

.....

18. What individual tests are most frequently used?

---

19. What use is most commonly made of these test results?

---

20. Are psychological tests used for:

Classifying or dividing grades into sections? {Yes..... No.....

Selecting defectives for special rooms? {Yes..... No.....

Recommending special types of training? {Yes..... No.....

In diagnosis of behavior problems? {Yes..... No.....

In the selection of jobs? {Yes..... No.....

In choosing candidates for scholarship? {Yes..... No.....

Other uses.....

21. Are Scholarships granted in your schools? {Yes..... No.....

22. Are they financed by:

Special endowments?.....

Private funds?.....

Others?.....

23. Are they gifts outright? {Yes..... No.....

Loan funds? {Yes..... No.....

24. Are they administered by:

Individual schools?.....

Central school office?.....

Private agencies?.....

25. Are school Scholarships granted to pupils of:

Elementary schools?.....

Junior high schools?.....

Senior high schools?.....

Trade schools?.....

26. Are Scholarships granted to special age groups?
{Yes..... / No.....} What?.....
Are Scholarships granted to special sex groups?
{Yes..... / No.....} What?.....
Are Scholarships granted to special race groups?
{Yes..... / No.....} What?.....

27. Basis of award: (Indicate 1, 2, 3, 4, according to importance.)
Intelligence test ratings.....
Achievement record.....
Character qualities.....
Financial need.....

28. Approximate number of children to whom scholarships are granted in a year?.....

29. Approximate total expended for scholarships in one year?
.....

30. Is there an organized uniform Employment Service, headed by a director, in your school system? {Yes..... / No.....}

(BY "ORGANIZED EMPLOYMENT SERVICE" WE MEAN A SERVICE WITH REGULAR OFFICE HOURS, TO WHICH AT LEAST ONE WORKER IS ASSIGNED AT LEAST HALF TIME.)

31. How many on the staff exclusive of clerks?.....
Are they on special licenses or certificates?.....
Are they teachers assigned full time?.....
Are they teachers assigned part time?.....

32. Is the service located in a central office?.....
Is the service located in high schools?.....
Is the service located in trade schools?.....
Is the service located in continuation schools?.....
Is the service located in other places? (specify where).....
.....

33. What ages does your employment office serve?.....

34. Does the department find after-school and Saturday jobs? {Yes..... / No.....} or only full-time jobs? {Yes..... / No.....}

35. Does the department find first jobs only? {Yes / No} or offer a continuous service? {Yes / No}

36. What is your procedure for following up children you have placed?

37. Is employment independently organized in certain schools? {Yes / No}
(BY "ORGANIZED" WE MEAN WITH REGULAR OFFICE HOURS, AND ONE WORKER ASSIGNED AT LEAST HALF TIME.)

38. If so, are employment offices located in:
High schools? How many?
Trade schools? How many?
Continuation schools? How many?
Other places? (specify where)

39. Are the workers on special licenses or certificates?
Are the workers teachers assigned full time?
Are the workers teachers assigned part time?

40. Do you investigate jobs before (or immediately after) placement? {Yes / No}

41. Does your school system feel responsible for locating jobs for pupils leaving school to go to work? {Yes / No}

42. If no employment offices exist in your school system, where do you send pupils who are leaving school to go to work?

43. Main emphases: (NUMBER IN ORDER OF IMPORTANCE)

	Present plan	Plan to develop
Individual counseling		
Group counseling		
Classes in Occupation		
Occupational studies		
Placement		
Psychological tests		
Scholarships		
Other		

TO EMPLOYMENT DEPARTMENTS OF STATE DEPARTMENTS OF LABOR

CHECK (√) ANSWERS WHEN POSSIBLE

Date.....

City..... State.....

Name of person answering these questions.....

Position of person answering these questions.....

1. About how many individuals (under 18 years of age) apply at your office in a year?..... (This is meant to count an applicant only once no matter how many times he applies.)
2. About how many individuals (under 18 years of age) do you place in a year?.....
3. How many employment workers in your department, exclusive of clerks?.....
4. Are your employment workers subject to civil service regulation?.....
5. What education and experience is required of your employment workers?

   Eighth grade graduates.....
   High school graduates.....
   College graduates.....
   Experience in business or industry.....
6. What is the minimum salary for employment workers?..... maximum?.....
7. Do the junior applicants wait in the same room with adult applicants? {Yes..... / No.....}
8. Are junior applicants interviewed by one particular employment worker? {Yes..... / No.....}
9. What is the minimum age of the applicants you receive? .....
10. Are your applicants boys? {Yes..... / No.....} girls? {Yes..... / No.....} both? {Yes..... / No.....}

11. Are your applicants limited to special religious or racial groups, such as:

White..... Catholic.....
Colored..... Jewish.....
Protestant.....

12. Do you require applicants to present preliminary or final work certificates where necessary? {Yes..... No.....

13. Do you place juniors in full-time jobs? {Yes..... No.....

Part-time? {Yes..... No.....

14. Do you visit employers? {Yes..... No.....} If so, for the purpose of:

(a) Securing more jobs?.....

(b) Investigating jobs?..... Do you do this before (or immediately after) placement? {Yes..... No.....

(c) Following up applicants placed?.....

15. Do your records include information about?—

A. The individual:

Date of birth.....
Birthplace.....
Religion.....
School grade completed.....
Special training.....
Continuation school attendance.....
Age on leaving school.....
Reason for leaving school.....
Health examination.....
Report or rating of character or personal characteristics
obtained from teachers.....
employment worker.....
former employer.....
other.....
Leisure time interests.....
Immediate job desired.....
Eventual work plan.....
Plan for further education or training.....

Work history, including name of firm.....type of business.....kind of job.....how found job.....weekly wage.....time employed.....reason for leaving.....

.....

Is this information kept for jobs held previous to application at your office? {Yes..... / No.....} and for all subsequent jobs whether obtained by your office or not? {Yes..... / No.....}

B. Family:

Birthplace of father.....
Parents living or dead.....
Marital state of parents.....
Occupation of parents.....
Number of older brothers and sisters.....
Number of younger brothers and sisters.....
Occupations of brothers and sisters.....
Amount of education received by brothers and sisters before going to work.....
Other.....

16. Do you interview and keep a record every time the applicant comes to your office? {Yes..... / No.....}

17. Do you require reference before placement of individual? {Yes..... / No.....}

Character reference?.....Work reference?.....

18. For what purpose do you keep records: (NUMBER IN ORDER OF IMPORTANCE)

Because you consider them essential to placement?.....
For use in making reports?.....
For purpose of research?.....

19. What items do you include in your regular reports?

A. Applicants:

Number of individuals who applied.....
Number of individuals who were placed.....
Number of applications received.....
(i.e. If John comes to the office three times in

January, he represents one individual, three applications.)

Number of placements made.....

Classification of individuals who applied:

By sex.....

By age.....

By school grade completed.....

Others.....

B. Jobs:

Number of jobs open.....

Kinds of jobs.....

Wages paid.....

How do you classify jobs?.....

.....

20. To whom do you submit your reports?.....

21. How often? Weekly.....bi-weekly.....monthly.....yearly.....
other.....

22. What types of community agencies do you frequently call upon (i.e. health relief, school, etc.).....
.....

23. What other agencies in community do junior employment?
.....

24. Do you think that junior workers should go to the State Employment Service to get jobs? {Yes..... / No.....} or should the school system be responsible for getting jobs for boys and girls under 18? {Yes..... / No.....}

TO SOCIAL AGENCIES WORKING WITH YOUNG EMPLOYED GROUPS

CHECK (✓) ANSWERS WHEN POSSIBLE

Name of Organization..... Date.....

City..... State.....

Name of person answering these questions.....

Position of person answering these questions.....

1. Have you an employment department in your organization?
   { Yes.....
   { No.....
   (BY EMPLOYMENT DEPARTMENT WE MEAN A SERVICE WITH REGULAR OFFICE HOURS TO WHICH AT LEAST ONE WORKER IS ASSIGNED AT LEAST HALF TIME)
2. How many workers in this department exclusive of clerks?
   .....
3. How many full time?.....Part time?.....
4. Do they have other duties than employment? { Yes..... / No.....
   If so, does this other work consist mainly of: (PLEASE NUMBER IN ORDER OF IMPORTANCE)
   Vocational Counseling?.....
   Family Case Work?.....
   Group Recreational Work?.....
   Psychological Testing?.....
   Other (specify what).....
5. What education and experience is required of your employment workers?
   High school graduate.....
   Some college or normal school.....
   College graduate.....
   Specialized training of college grade in:
   Psychology?.....Economics or sociology?.....Case work?.....Other.....
6. What is the minimum salary for employment workers?..... maximum?.....

7. About how many individuals (under 18 years of age) apply at your office in a year?..... (This is meant to count an applicant only once no matter how many times he applies)

8. About how many individuals (under 18 years of age) do you place in a year?.....

9. Do you do any employment also for adult workers (i.e. 18 years of age and over?) {Yes..... / No.....}

10. If so, about how many individuals over 18 years do you place in a year?..... (PLEASE GIVE EXACT FIGURES FOR QUESTIONS 7, 8, and 10 WHERE POSSIBLE)

11. Is the placement for those under 18 done by different employment workers from those in the adult department? {Yes..... / No.....}

12. To whom are junior employment workers responsible?..... ..... (ALL FOLLOWING QUESTIONS APPLY TO APPLICANTS UNDER 18 ONLY)

Do you charge a fee for placement? {Yes..... / No.....} For vocational counseling? {Yes..... / No.....}

13. What is the minimum age of the applicants you receive?.....

14. Are your applicants boys? {Yes..... / No.....} girls? {Yes..... / No.....} both? {Yes..... / No.....}

15. Are your applicants limited to special religious or racial groups, such as:

White..... Catholic.....
Colored..... Jewish.....
Protestant.....

16. If a membership organization, do you restrict service to your membership group? {Yes..... / No.....}

17. If a relief agency, do you restrict service to juniors of dependent families? {Yes..... / No.....}

18. Do you require applicants to present preliminary or final work certificates where necessary? {Yes..... / No.....}

19. Do you clear all cases with a Social Service Exchange to ascertain other agencies working on the case? {Yes..... / No.....}

Special cases only? {Yes..... / No.....} No cases? {Yes..... / No.....}

20. Do you make home visits? {Yes..... / No.....} If so, is this done by employment workers? {Yes..... / No.....} or other workers? {Yes..... / No.....}

21. Do you place juniors in full-time jobs? {Yes..... / No.....} Part time? {Yes..... / No.....}

22. Do you visit employers? {Yes..... / No.....} If so, for the purpose of:

Securing more jobs?.....

Investigating jobs?..... Do you do this before (or immediately after) placement? {Yes ..... / No.....}

Following up applicants placed?.....

23. Does an employment worker do this visiting? {Yes..... / No.....} or is it done by a special investigator? {Yes..... / No.....}

24. Do you organize field trips for applicants? {Yes..... / No.....}

Who leads these trips?.....

25. Does your department have a psychological testing service? {Yes..... / No.....}

Are cases referred to other agencies for this service? {Yes..... / No.....}

Frequently?..... Occasionally?.....

26. Are tests given to all applicants?.....
Are tests given applicants for certain types of jobs (i.e. clerical)?.....
Are tests given especially promising applicants?.....
Are tests given especially difficult applicants?.....

27. If tests (intelligence, trade tests, etc.) are given, what tests are most frequently used?.....
.....

28. Are test results most commonly used for:
Urging return to school or attendance at night school?
.....
Advising special training in school or on job?.....
Placement on jobs or in concern having opportunities for training or advancement?.....
Placement on jobs calling for special skills (i.e., typing)
.....
Obtaining scholarships?.....
Referral to other agency or department?.....
Other?.....

29. Do your records include information about?

A. The individual:

Date of birth.....
Birthplace.....
Religion.....
School grade completed.....
Special training.....
Continuation school attendance.....
Age on leaving school.....
Reason for leaving school.....
Health examination.....
Test results.....
Report or rating of character or personal characteristics obtained from:
Teachers.....
Employment worker.....
Former employer.....
Other.....
Leisure time interests.....
Immediate job desired.....
Eventual work plan.....

Plan for further education or training.....
Work history, including name of firm.....
type of business.....kind of job.....how found job.....weekly wage.....time employed.....
reason for leaving.....
.....

Is this information kept for jobs held previous to application at your office? {Yes..... / No.....} and for all subsequent jobs whether obtained by you or not? {Yes..... / No.....}

B. Family:

Birthplace of father.....
Parents living or dead.....
Marital state of parents.....
Occupation of parents.....
Number of older brothers and sisters.....
Number of younger brothers and sisters.....
Occupations of brothers and sisters.....
Amount of education received by brothers and sisters before going to work.....
Other.....

30. Do you interview and keep a record every time the applicant comes to your office? {Yes..... / No.....}

31. Do you require reference before placement of individual? {Yes..... / No.....}

Character reference?.....Work reference?.....

32. For what purpose do you keep records: (NUMBER IN ORDER OF IMPORTANCE)

Because you consider them essential to placement?.....
For use in making reports?.....
For purpose of research?.....

33. What items do you include in your regular reports?

A. Applicants:

Number of individuals who applied.....
Number of individuals who were placed.....

Number of applications received.....
(i.e. If John comes to the office three times in January, he represents one individual, three applications.)
Number of placements made.....
Classification of individuals who applied:
By sex.....
By age.....
By school grade completed.....
Others.....

B. Jobs:

Number of jobs open.....
Kinds of jobs.....
Wages paid.....
How do you classify jobs?.....
.....

34. To whom do you submit your reports?.....

35. How often? Weekly.....bi-weekly.....monthly.....
yearly..... Other.....

36. What types of community agencies do you frequently call upon (i.e. health relief, school, etc.)?.....
.....

37. Do you also secure the following service from any agency?
Vocational counsel for individuals.....
Vocational talks for junior groups.....
Field trips for children to industries.....
Field trips for children to community organizations.....
Special fund for scholarships.....

38. What other agencies in community do junior employment?
.....

39. Does your organization regard junior employment as part of its permanent responsibility? {Yes..... / No.....} or is it conducting the department as an experiment or demonstration until another agency takes it over? {Yes..... / No.....}

40. If the latter, what agency seems the logical one to do it?
.....

TO AGENCIES HAVING AN UNORGANIZED PLACEMENT OR VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE SERVICE

The work being done in obtaining jobs for young workers is one of the topics covered in the Committee on Vocational Guidance of the White House Conference. In addition to the work being done by the schools and state labor departments, we are most anxious to get information about the junior employment and vocational guidance activities of social agencies.

We understand that your organization is doing a certain amount of employment and vocational guidance for juniors up to eighteen years of age, but that the work is not organized in a special department. It will help us very materially if you will check the following answers which apply to your work with this junior group.

Who in your organization does the work of employment or guidance?

Family case workers.....
Group activities workers.....
Psychologists.....
Interested business men.....
Teachers.....
Others.....

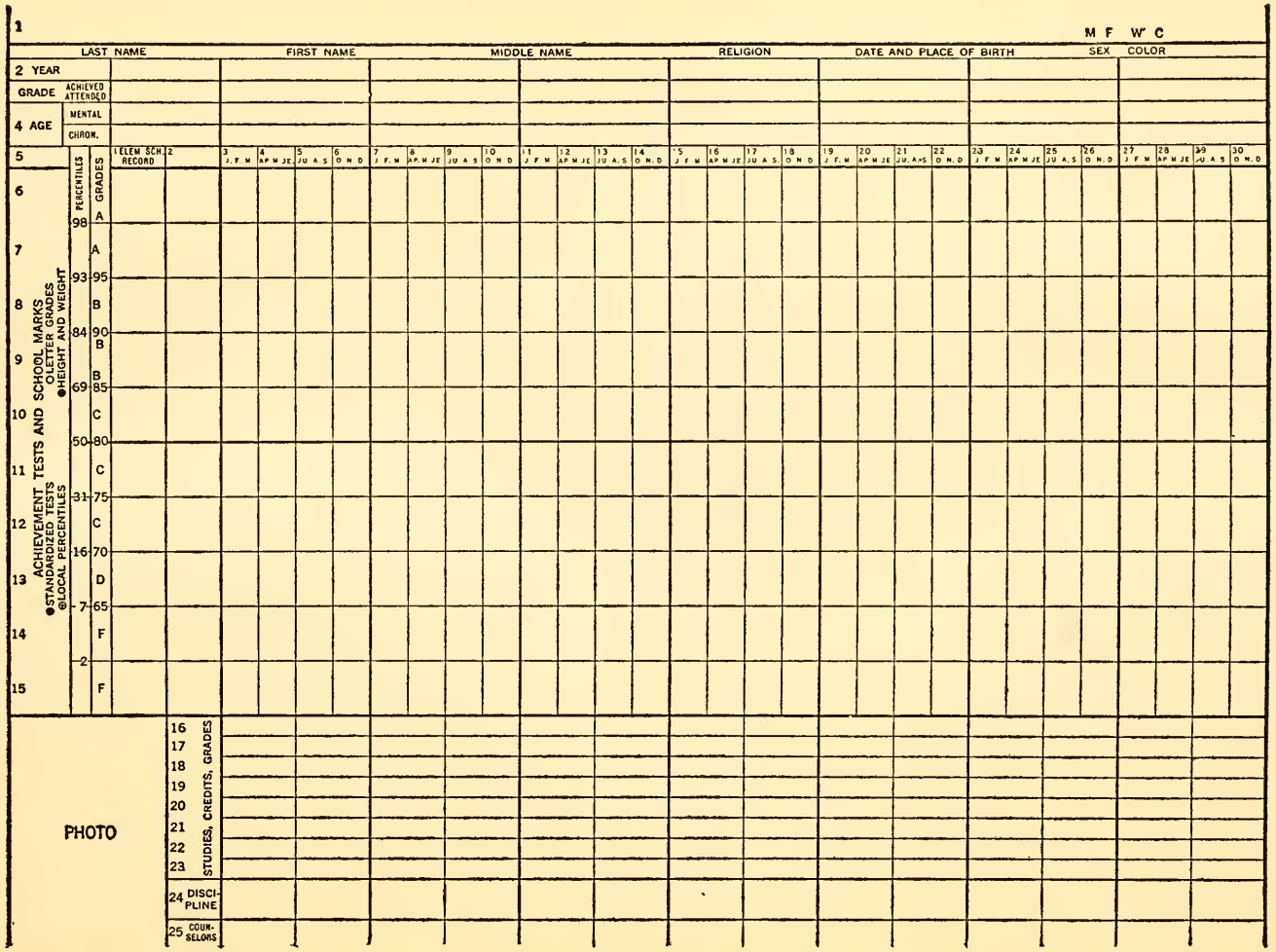
What kind of work do you do?

Individual vocational counseling.....
Group vocational counseling.....
Employment.....
Make occupational studies.....
Give psychological tests.....
Provide scholarships.....
Other.....

Approximately how many young people are served in these ways in a year?..... Or indicate in some other way the volume of work, etc., you are doing along these lines.....

B. Study of the Individual

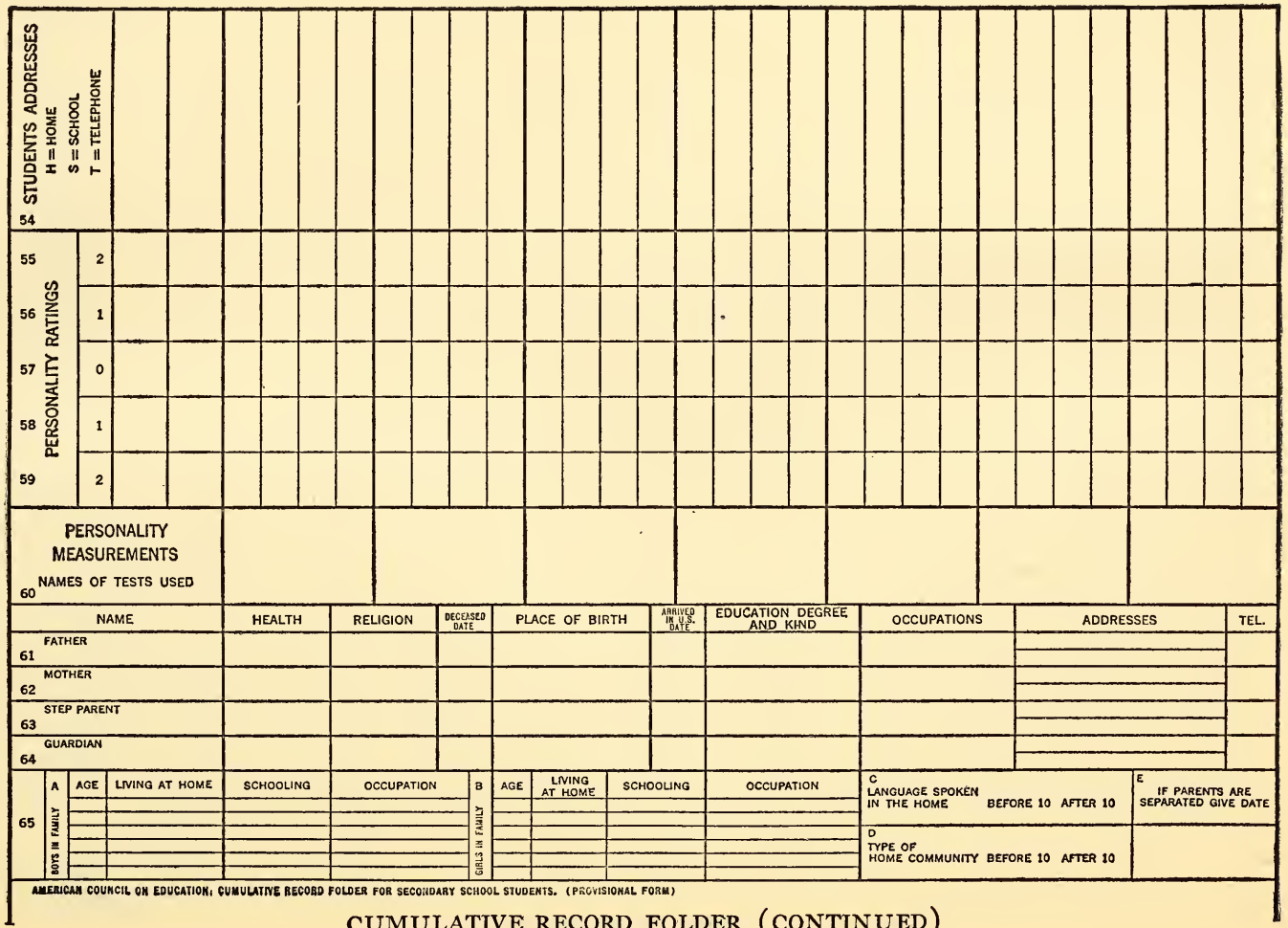
CUMULATIVE RECORD FOLDER FOR SECONDARY SCHOOL STUDENTS



CUMULATIVE RECORD FOLDER PREPARED BY AMERICAN COUNCIL ON EDUCATION

26	NAMES AND TYPES OF SCHOOLS																
27	REASONS FOR LEAVING																
28	NUMBER OF DAYS ABSENT																
29	YEAR																
30	AGE																
31	NOTABLE ACCOMPLISHMENTS UNUSUAL EXPERIENCES																
32	CLUBS. OFFICES																
33	EXTRA CURRICULUM EXPERIENCES	ATHLETIC															
34		HOURS A WEEK															
35		NON-ATHLETIC															
36		HOURS A WEEK															
37	VOCATIONAL EXPERIENCES	TYPE AND DURATION															
38																	
39		WEEKLY PAY															
40		HOURS A WEEK															
41	SUPPORT OF SELF AND DEPENDENTS																
42	LOANS AND SCHOLARSHIPS																
43	STUDY CONDITIONS AND HOURS OF STUDY A WEEK																
44	SUMMER EXPERIENCES																
45	EDUCATIONAL PLANS																
46	EDUCATIONAL SUGGESTIONS																
47	VOCATIONAL AND PROFESSIONAL PREFERENCES																
48	INTERESTS REPORTED																
49	PHYSICAL DISABILITIES																
50	HEALTH																
51	MENTAL HEALTH																
52	SOCIAL ADJUSTMENTS AND HOME CONDITIONS																
53	COMMUTING TIME HOURS A WEEK																

CUMULATIVE RECORD FOLDER (CONTINUED)



CUMULATIVE RECORD FOLDER (CONTINUED)

NOTES

66 YEAR							
67 AGE							
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C. Counseling

REPORT OF COMMITTEE ON STANDARD CERTIFICATION OF VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE COUNSELORS, TO NATIONAL VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE ASSOCIATION, FEBRUARY 20 TO 22, 1930

This committee was appointed after a meeting of persons interested in the professional training of guidance workers, held at Boston two years ago. During the first year a study was made of the problem by the committee and a report was made at the Cleveland meeting of the National Vocational Guidance Association in February, 1930.

The procedure used in the original study was as follows:

1. An examination was made of the existing certification requirements in cities and states.

2. An examination was made of the experience and preparation of a select group of successful counselors in service.

3. The opinion of leaders in guidance and counselor training was sought.

On the basis of information and opinion gathered the committee formulated and presented its recommendations at the Cleveland meeting. The time for discussion of these recommendations was short and as there were some who did not agree with the recommendations as presented, the committee was asked to continue its work another year.

The committee has sent the recommendations to about 200 people in the form of a questionnaire, including to the best of its knowledge those persons in attendance at the Cleveland meeting. In the light of the responses received to this questionnaire the recommendations have been revised and clarified to meet so far as possible the suggestions made.

INTRODUCTION TO RECOMMENDATIONS

The recommendations given below are presented as a minimum upon which to base a plan for certification. The committee recognizes that existing requirements are in many instances in excess of those

presented. The committee has also taken into consideration those parts of the country which do not have access to professional training in this field at the present time as well as the qualifications of the personnel most likely to enter this field. Whether we have requirements or not this job is going to be done in an increasing number of places and superintendents are going to use available persons as counselors. The ideal requirement may, then, prove impractical.

Of the 205 persons to whom the questionnaire containing the recommendations of the committee was sent, 120 replied or about 60 per cent. So far as possible the comments of these people have been considered in the revised recommendations given below.

REVISED RECOMMENDATIONS

Personality and Maturity

Candidates for certification should have: ability to work with *men and women* and to *inspire* and *keep* the *confidence* of boys and girls, and associates; ability to meet people, to take the initiative, to deal with situations as they must be met in the counseling position.

Such persons should be mature in both years and judgment. The ages of 25 and 40 are suggested as the limits for entrance to this work.

Experience

Candidates should have appropriate evidence of five years of experience in dealing with people. This experience should be such that the counselor will appreciate by contact the problems of young people both in school and in employment. Each case should be judged separately. The following kinds of experience are particularly valuable:

1. Industrial, commercial and professional, exclusive of teaching but inclusive of personnel work.
2. Classroom, shop, or laboratory teaching or administrative work in school grades in which counselor expects to work. (This should not include student teaching.)
3. Social case work for social agencies and visiting teacher service within the school system.
4. Participation in local surveys and report writing under direction or in laboratory case work and reports on problems related to guidance.

Education and Type of Certificate

A *guidance certificate* may be granted upon approval of proper evidence of Personality and Experience as outlined above and the completion of the following courses; providing that in no case shall it be granted to a candidate on a lower educational status than that required for other teachers with whom candidate is to work. This certificate should be valid for three years.

	CREDITS
Principles of Teaching, Educational Psychology, Educational Measurements	6
Educational and Vocational Guidance	2
Vocational Activities or Occupational Information, Research and Surveys	2
Methods of Imparting Occupational Information	2
Total	12

Renewal of the guidance certificate should be granted upon the completion in each three year period of six credit hours of work selected from the following courses:

	CREDITS
*a. Social Problems and Case Work	2
*b. Psychological Tests in Guidance or Advanced Work in Mental Measurements	2
*c. Counseling the Individual	2
*d. Placement and Follow-Up	2
*e. Principles and Problems of Vocational Education	2
*f. Labor Problems, Labor Legislation and Employment Conditions	2
*g. Research and Surveys in Occupational Information	4
*h. The Junior High School	2
i. Extracurricular Problems and Exploratory Courses	2
*j. Principles of Secondary Education	2
*k. Principles of the High School Curriculum	2
l. Educational Administration or Personnel Administration	2
m. Sociology	2
n. Economics	2
o. Advanced Psychology or Philosophy	2

Full certification should not be attained until the candidate has:

a. Met the requirements as stated under Personality and Experience.

b. Given satisfactory evidence of success as a counselor (not less than two years).

c. Completed his undergraduate work.

d. Completed in addition to the courses required for the first certificate 12 credit hours in the starred courses.

QUALIFICATIONS OF TEACHERS OF VOCATIONAL AND EDUCATIONAL GUIDANCE[1]

The nature of guidance and counseling with young people in our schools demands the services of persons particularly qualified for the work by virtue of personality, maturity, experience and special training.

Personality. The counselor needs to have a personality which will gain and maintain the respect and confidence of young people; the ability to work with fellow teachers and to meet employers and others with whom he must make contacts outside the school.

These traits of personality are most essential for successful counseling with young people because the counselor is the one to whom the pupils should feel free to go for assistance when difficulties arise. The confidence which the pupil has in the counselor as a friend and adviser is all important.

Since the counselor must work in close harmony with all other teachers on the faculty he must be able to maintain cordial relations and a cooperative attitude. The success of the guidance program within a given school unit will be determined by the coordination of the activities of all concerned.

In all contacts with employers and others outside the school the counselor must create a feeling of good will and understanding. In this way the counselor can secure for pupils the consideration deserved.

Maturity. The exercise of good judgment is conditioned largely by a varied and extended experience. This may be expected from mature persons. Valuable as maturity is, counselors should not be appointed who are not physically active, and who have advanced to an age when a sympathetic attitude toward the problems of young people has been lost.

[1] Report of New York State Education Department.

Experience. The range of occupational experience is so great that no person may have all the desirable kinds. It is desirable that the counselor have experience in the school grades or type of school in which he expects to counsel. Since the greater number of our young people leave school at an early age and enter factory and commercial occupations, experience in these occupations will be valuable. Other experiences directly related to guidance problems are: social case work; visiting teacher service; participation in local surveys and report writing under direction; administrative work in the school grades in which the person expects to work; personnel work in large industrial or commercial establishments.

Education. In general, the education of counselors should be comparable with that required of other teachers with whom the counselor is to work. This is true, not only because the work demands adequate preparation, but because the qualifications for positions in the same school and on a similar salary schedule should be comparable.

Certification. The employment and certification of teachers of vocational and educational guidance are governed by the following rules and regulations:

Education Law

(Article 22, section 609)

The school authorities of each school district may employ one or more qualified persons for the purpose of providing vocational and educational guidance for minors. Such vocational and educational guidance service and the qualifications of the persons employed for such work shall be approved by the Commissioner of Education. The Commissioner of Education shall make an apportionment of money on account of the employment of qualified persons for this work as provided in section six hundred and five of this chapter.

When Vocational and Educational Guidance Certificate Is Necessary

Teachers and other persons who devote half time or more to those activities commonly recognized as guidance functions in the full-time schools or those specially appointed for guidance work in the part-time schools are required to hold either a limited or permanent vocational and educational guidance certificate. The following duties are construed as guidance functions: teaching classes in the study of

educational and occupational opportunity; counseling with pupils and parents relative to educational and vocational plans of pupils; assisting pupils to secure proper employment at the time of leaving school; engaging in follow-up of pupils who have left school to enter employment.

Regulations of the Commissioner of Education

Qualifications of Vocational and Educational Guidance Counselors

1. *Personality and Maturity.* Candidates for certification should have: ability to work with men and women, particularly teachers, parents and employers, and to inspire and keep the confidence of boys and girls, and associates; ability to meet people, to take the initiative, to deal with situations as they must be met in the counseling position.

Such persons should be mature in both years and judgment.

2. *Experience.* Candidates must have satisfactory evidence of three years of approved experience. This experience must include teaching and such other experience as will enable the counselor to appreciate by contact the problems of young people both in school and in employment. The following kinds of experience are particularly valuable:

a. Industrial, commercial and professional, exclusive of teaching but inclusive of personnel work.

b. Classroom, shop or laboratory teaching or administrative work in the school grades in which the counselor expects to work. (This does not include student teaching.)

c. Social case work for social agencies and visiting teacher service.

d. Participation in local surveys and report writing under direction or in laboratory case work and reports on problems related to guidance.

3. *Education and Special Training.*

a. Graduation from an approved four-year high school course and the possession of a permanent certificate to teach, or

b. Graduation from an approved four-year high school course and completion of at least three years (in 1934 four years) of approved college work.

c. In addition, all candidates for a certificate to perform guidance activities, must present evidence of having completed

the following courses which may have formed a part of the previous professional training of the applicant:

General Courses

	Credit Hours
Educational psychology (psychology of adolescence preferred)	2
Principles of teaching	2
Educational measurements	2
Sociology	2
Economics	2
Principles of secondary education	2
Total	12

Special Courses

	Credit Hours
Educational and vocational guidance (advanced)	2
Analysis of the individual and counseling	2
Studies and research in educational and occupational opportunities	4
Principles and problems in vocational education (advanced)	2
Labor problems, legislation and employment conditions	2
Psychological tests in guidance	2
Total	14

Six credit hours to be elected from the following:

	Credit Hours
Social problems and case work	2
Seminar in occupational and educational information	4
The junior high school	2
The high school curriculum	2
Personnel administration	2
Philosophy of education	2
Industrial history	2

Types of Certificates

1. The permanent vocational and educational guidance certificate is a life license. It is granted to applicants who meet the full requirements.

2. The limited vocational and educational guidance certificate is valid for three years. It is issued only upon request of a superintendent of schools after the applicant has been assured of a position to teach and upon evidence that the requirements under paragraphs 1 and 2 have been met and that the applicant has completed at least six credit hours of work in the special courses required for the permanent certificate. The limited certificate may be renewed for three-year periods after the holder has had two years of successful counseling experience and has completed prior to each renewal 12 credit hours of work in the general and special courses required for the permanent certificate.

L. A. WILSON

Assistant Commissioner for Vocational and Extension Education
August 1, 1930.

DUTIES OF THE EDUCATIONAL AND VOCATIONAL ADVISERS IN CHICAGO JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS

Counseling

I. Entering Pupils

At the close of each semester the Vocational Adviser may administer or assist in administering entrance tests to pupils who expect to enter 7B the following semester.

When the new semester opens there are pupils who were not present when the tests were given, or who enter by transfer from other schools. These pupils may be referred to the adviser to take the entrance tests and if the pupil has completed 7th grade, advice should be given at this time as to choice of course. Any problems noted at the time of interview should later be followed up by the vocational adviser.

II. 7A Counseling

All 7A pupils should be counseled by the adviser with regard to choice of course for the 8th grade. Procedure suggested:

The courses explained to the pupils in each 7A room.

A letter of explanation sent to the parents and a reply required for each pupil, indicating the course chosen, the amount and type of education the parents expect to give their children, and the chief interests, if any, that have been shown. Parents may be invited at this time to visit the school and consult with the adviser before making a selection of course.

Personnel records filled out for each pupil. The records contain the family history, out-of-school history, school history—including grades and results of any tests given—school activities, vocational interests, course chosen, and educational plans.

The pupils to be interviewed individually in the following order:

Those expecting to leave at the end of junior high school. These should be urged to continue further if possible, and hindrances followed up and removed, if possible.

All pupils who expect to take only two year courses and whose scholarship record and economic status would warrant a four year course.

All pupils who have a low I.Q. and poor scholarship, and who have chosen a course which seems beyond their abilities.

All pupils where there is a discrepancy between the course chosen and the pupil's interests and special abilities.

The results of interviews to be tabulated and sent to each division room teacher, showing the courses chosen by each pupil, and a summary sent to the assistant principal to be used as a basis for the school program for the following semester.

III. 9A Counseling

The routine of counseling makes it probable that each pupil will be interviewed at least twice during his stay in junior high school. He is counseled when his selection of junior high school course is made in 7A, and his second certain contact is made when he is interviewed in 9A concerning his selection of course for senior high school. If the course was properly chosen in 7A, and there have been no changes, there should be little difficulty in articulating in 9A. Advisers should make contacts with high schools in their districts and become familiar with senior high courses and electives, so that in assisting pupils to plan their courses there will be perfect articulation.

Procedure. If personnel cards have not been made out before, they are made out at this time.

The adviser meets the pupils in each home-room and explains the courses offered in senior high school.

Each 9A pupil should then be interviewed individually.

An assembly may be planned, inviting in a speaker to stimulate interest in further education, and representatives from the senior

high schools to tell of the activities of their particular schools and to explain further the courses offered.
"Futures" and "Applications to High School" to be sent to the parents at this time.

After the applications to senior high school have been received, the adviser sends the results to the senior high school principal, with the grades of the pupils and the number taking each subject. In the case of 9A pupils who are leaving school after graduation, the advisers should see that in so far as possible they secure suitable employment and are properly certificated for work.

IV. Change of Course

Pupils desiring "change of course" may be sent to the adviser for investigation. Recommendation, allowing or refusing request, is sent to principal or assistant principal for final decision. Adviser should be notified of action taken, as a matter of record.

V. Failures

Pupils failing in three or more subjects may be referred to the adviser for special study and treatment. In the past, the groups dealt with have varied from school to school. The following groups have been referred to advisers:

The Seven B's, because they have just come to the school and maladjustments are to be guarded against.
The Eight B's, because they have just begun a new course and difficulties should be corrected early.
Pupils failing in two or three subjects are sometimes considered sufficiently grave problems to need special attention.
The Nine A pupils, because they are getting ready to go to Senior High School.
Special cases are referred to the adviser by teachers, deans, and other administrative officials.

The procedure varies; though the end to be attained, a better adjustment of the child to the school environment, is the same.

The adviser secures information from teachers about the child, his abilities and disabilities, his attitudes and details concerning his out-of-school activities and home environment. In some cases, this is reported on a form devised for the purpose.

By an interview with the child this information is supplemented, and his own reaction to the school and the school work secured.
She may give tests to determine the focus of difficulty.
She may call upon social agencies for special case work or treatment.
She makes contact with the parents either by letter, telephone call, office visit or home call.
Recommendations are made to parents and teachers and an attempt to help the child understand his difficulties is made.
If a remedial class is organized in the school he may be referred to this class.
His work is watched and follow-up work is done at subsequent periods.

VI. Problem Pupils

Certain problem pupils may be referred to the adviser, principal, assistant, dean, or teachers. They include behavior cases, poverty cases, special cases of backward and irregular pupils. The procedure is the same as in the case of failing pupils.

VII. Occupational Information

The adviser should work with the social studies teachers in furnishing material on all occupations, obtaining loans of books from the public library, and by interviewing pupils who come to her for information about occupations.

Methods used in giving pupils occupational information follow:

a. Group Work

Talks on specific occupations by advisers to classes.
Information on reference sources given to classes.
Trips to industrial establishments taken or arranged for.
Occupational themes assigned to English classes.
Posters made in art classes.
Sometimes a "Vocational Guidance Week" is planned, giving special emphasis to furnishing groups with occupational information at this time by displaying poster work, securing outside speakers or vocational films for junior and senior assembly; arranging for articles in the school paper by pupils or by adviser, and for trips for the Occupations Classes. Those who do not have a Vocational Guidance Week, as well as those who do, conduct a program of this sort running through the term.

The advisers may sponsor Occupations Clubs which meet

once a week during the "club" period of a half hour to consider vocational matters.

b. Individual Work

In counseling pupils the adviser has an opportunity to give some occupational information. The adviser maintains her own supply of pamphlet, book, and magazine material, occupational studies and leaflets published by the Vocational Guidance Bureau and those collected from other cities, which she gives or loans to individual pupils.

The adviser sometimes consults with individual pupils about choosing the subjects for their career books, planning them, and about methods of securing material and first-hand information about the occupation they have chosen to study.

VIII. Placement

The adviser should refer to the Placement Department all pupils needing assistance in securing employment, with the adviser's recommendations.

IX. Pupils Dropping Out of School and Certification

The issuing of employment certificates to graduates or undergraduates for after-school, vacation, or full-time work, should begin in the office of the vocational adviser in the school. In this way it is possible to be certain that children remain in school until all papers are complete and it has been determined that they are eligible for employment. It is also more convenient for both child and parents because of location near the home. Parents are interviewed at school, at home and at their work. Some appointments are made by telephone, and some by letter, and because of this facility of communication with the home, the adviser may be certain that the parent is in accord with the plan from the start.

This work involves the establishment of a proof of age, securing a statement regarding hours, type, and conditions of work from the prospective employer, and issuing of school records.

An effort should be made to see that no child between the ages of fourteen and sixteen drops out of school without securing employment and being properly certificated for it; that pupils between sixteen and seventeen years of age establish their age and are enrolled in continuation school. Information about night schools and trade schools should be given to pupils over sixteen years of age.

It is difficult to be certain that the adviser secures the names of all pupils dropping out of school. In one school the principal has ruled that the permanent records of all pupils be sent to the office of the adviser by the room teacher for examination before the name may be dropped from her roll. In another case, the adviser has charge of checking the return of books, locker fees, etc.

X. Transferring Pupils

The vocational adviser has some responsibility in connection with the issuing of outgoing transfers and the accompanying records of credit. The adviser seems to be the logical person to see that the credit records and transfers for the graduating class are sent to the receiving schools, since she had charge of enrolling this group for their high school courses. In addition, the handling of the other transfers and credits is often undertaken because of the advantage of having this work taken care of by one person. This work has been sometimes assigned to the adviser to make certain that she has a complete record of all drop-outs or pupils leaving the school.

XI. Personnel Records

To keep personnel records of all pupils and to forward these records to the advisers of the senior high schools, which the pupils enter.

XII. Cooperation with Other Agencies

Cooperate with all agencies within and outside the schools in making the best possible adjustments for pupils in school or in industry.

D. Scholarships for Children

Forms Used by the Scholarship Association for Jewish Children, Chicago

Scholarship Association for Jewish Children in Vocational Guidance Bureau, Chicago

SCHOLARSHIP APPLICATION DATE.....

NAME ADDRESS

F. R. Flat

REFERRED BY PHONE

LATER ADDRESS LATER ADDRESS

BIRTH DATE BIRTHPLACE

Years in U. S.

GRAMMAR SCHOOL JUNIOR HIGH

Graduated Entered Graduated

HIGH SCHOOL

OTHER SCHOOLS ATTENDED Course Entered Graduated

Family	Date of Birth	Occupation or School Grade	Permanent Disability or Cause of Death	Remarks
Father				
1				
Mother				
2				
3				
4				
5				
6				
7				
8				
9				
10				
11				
Others in Home				

SCHOLARSHIP

GRANTED AMOUNT Loan / Not a Loan

Per month

DISCONTINUED REASON

RECORD CLOSED REASON

REJECTED REASON

WITHDRAWN REASON

SCHOLARSHIP ASSOCIATION FOR JEWISH CHILDREN
460 South State Street, Chicago

SCHOOL RECORD

NAME _____ SCHOOL _____ COURSE _____ ENTERED _____ GRADUATED _____

SESSION ROOM	DIVISION TEACHER					HOURS		
Date Semester	1st qtr.	2nd qtr.	3rd qtr.	4th qtr.		Teacher	Room	Period
						Absent	10 wks	10 wks
						Tardy		

Teachers' Comments—

SESSION ROOM	DIVISION TEACHER					HOURS		
Date Semester	1st qtr.	2nd qtr.	3rd qtr.	4th qtr.		Teacher	Room	Period
						Absent	10 wks	10 wks
						Tardy		

Teachers' Comments—

SCHOLARSHIP ASSOCIATION FOR JEWISH CHILDREN
460 South State Street, Chicago, Illinois

HEALTH RECORD

NAME:

DATE	AGE	HEIGHT	WEIGHT	NORMAL WEIGHT	PHYSICAL FINDINGS	TREATMENT

SCHOLARSHIP ASSOCIATION FOR JEWISH CHILDREN
460 South State Street, Chicago, Illinois

BUDGET SHEET

NAME:

EXPENSES—Date						INCOME—Date				
Unit or Item	No. of Units					Wages of Unit				
I						I				
II						II				
III						III				
IV						IV				
V						V				
VI										
VII										
VIII										
IX										
X						J. S. S. B.				
XI						F. to P.				
XII						Lodgers				
XIII						Relatives				
Rent						Clothes				
Fare						County Agent				
Lunch										
Fuel										
Extra Food										
Unions and Lodges										
Insurance										
Extra Clothes										
Special Diet										
Total Expense						*Total Income*				
						Scholarship				

E. Vocational Guidance through the Curriculum

Outlines for the Study of an Occupation

A Check List for Occupational Study[1]

I. Importance

1. Is this occupation really necessary?
2. Could society do without the service of this worker?
3. What would happen if the workers should stop?
4. Is the product a necessity or a luxury?
5. Is it necessary always, or only at one particular time of the year?

II. Work Done

1. What different kinds of work are done by various people in the occupation?
2. Make a list of the different things a given worker does.
3. Outline his day's work.

III. Advantages

1. Service to humanity.
2. Chance to learn.
3. Ease of entrance.
4. Demand for workers.
5. Steady work.
6. Growing importance.
7. Interesting work.
8. Promotions.
9. Friends and associates.
10. Hours.
11. Vacations.
12. Good living.
13. Healthful work.
14. Moral and ethical aspects.
15. "Energizing" work.
16. Other points.
17. Ways to reach higher occupations.

[1] Gowin, Wheatley and Brewer. *Occupations,* Ginn and Company, 1923.

IV. Disadvantages and Problems
(Use the same list as under III. See whether any of the questions apply.)

V. Preparation
1. Does the worker use eighth-grade arithmetic, drawing, or English?
2. Does the worker use geography or science?
3. How much education is a minimum requirement?
4. What studies are most useful: English literature, oral English, composition, algebra, geometry, mechanical drawing, free-hand drawing, physics, chemistry, biology, physical education, history, civics, music, or other studies?
5. Is a college education good preparation in helping the worker to be more useful?
6. Are there vocational courses to teach this occupation? Tell about them: admission requirements, length of course, cost, how conducted, advantages.
7. Are there any opportunities for part-time work and school, or for an apprenticeship plan? In the occupation is there advanced training to prepare a person for promotion to higher positions?
8. What preliminary experiences would help one to prepare? What Saturday or vacation opportunities are there?
9. Must the worker serve a preliminary or apprenticeship period? If so, how, when, where?
10. What "stepping-stones" are there to successful service in the occupation?

VI. Other Requirements
1. Ability to get along with people.
2. Ability to follow directions.
3. Ability to lead other people.
4. Ability to use good English.
5. Cheerfulness.
6. Common sense; good judgment.
7. Courtesy.
8. Ideals of honesty.
9. Responsibility; trustworthiness.
10. Ideals of service and usefulness.
11. Initiative; resourcefulness.
12. Mechanical skill.
13. Orderliness; system; neatness.
14. Promptness; punctuality.
15. Perseverance; industry.
16. Physical strength, health and vigor.

VII. Income

1. Can you estimate the yearly income under usual conditions of work? What are the wages per week, or month, or hour?
2. Can you arrange the different positions in the occupation in the order of their income to the worker?
3. What can you say about the pay at the beginning, and the increases as one obtains further experience?
4. What is the method of pay?
5. Does the worker receive enough pay to maintain an American standard of living?

VIII. Effect on the Worker

1. Social:
   a. Is he recognized as a useful member of society and given a proper place in society?
   b. Does his work help to make him more tactful and socially agreeable?
2. Civic: Does the work help to make him a better citizen?
3. Physical: Does the work have a good effect on his health?
4. Does the calling allow him to have a good home life?
5. Recreational:
   a. Does the work give him time for proper recreation, and does it encourage helpful forms of recreation?
   b. Are there rest or recreational periods during the work hours?
6. Mental life: Does the work stimulate the thinking of the worker?
7. Moral life:
   a. Does the work help him to become a better person?
   b. Are the influences in the place of work wholesome?

IX. General Considerations

1. History, development, and future of the occupation.
2. Relation to other occupations.
3. Comparisons with other occupations.
4. From what occupation may one enter this calling?
5. Does the occupation lead to a better vocation?
6. Instances of successful service in this occupation.
7. Are the workers organized into unions or other associations?
8. What laws influence or control the work or workers?

X. Brief list of references for reading.

An Outline for the Study of Occupations [1]

I. Nature, Description and History of Occupation

1. Name of occupation.
2. What is the nature of the work?
3. What are the main branches of the occupation?
4. Is there a tendency toward further specialization?
5. What tasks does one actually perform in a typical day?
6. Is it increasing or decreasing in importance?
7. What are the social aims of the occupation, its importance to society?
8. Is it localized, national or universal?
9. Is it seasonal; offers work only a few months in the year?
10. What is the degree of labor turnover; do workers change often?

[1] *An Introduction to Guidance,* Guidance Manual No. 1, Ohio State Department of Education.

11. What is its size?
    a. Number engaged as workers.
    b. Value of product and capital invested.
    c. Demand for laborers not enough to fill all openings.
    d. Oversupply of laborers.
12. Name ten outstanding personalities in this occupation.
13. Has it kept up with the times? How has it grown or changed?
14. Does it lead to something better?
15. Is the work interesting and stimulating?
16. Is there opportunity for initiative, pioneer work, leadership, originality, research?

II. Qualifications and Training Needed
1. Physical requirements.
    a. Weight
    b. Height
    c. Sex
    d. Entrance age
    e. Special senses
    f. Health
    g. Strength
2. Psychological requirements.
    a. General intelligence.
    b. Special aptitude.
    c. Ability of adaptation: social, mental, and physical.
    d. Character traits.
        1. What social and economic background is needed?
        2. What moral and intellectual traits are needed?

3. Preparation.
    a. Elementary school education.
    b. High school education.
    c. College education.
    d. Technical education.
    e. Does it require full-time schooling?
    f. Can the years of preparation be decreased by apprenticeship?
    g. Can the required education and additional education be secured in evening school—correspondence schools?
    h. Are there opportunities for training on the job?
    i. Is experience necessary?
    j. Does it require manipulative skill?
    k. Does the worker have to furnish his own tools?
    l. Does the worker have to wear special clothing?
4. What qualifications do customs demand?
    a. Religion.
    b. Nationality.

III. Remuneration
1. Initial pay.
2. Medium wage scale.
3. Maximum wage scale.
4. Discount and special prices.
5. Bonuses.
6. Group insurance.
7. Pensions.

8. Service department, such as local doctor, nurse, resting rooms, etc.
9. By hour, day, month.
10. Piece work.
11. Accident compensation.
12. Dockage.
13. When the work is well done does it make the worker feel that he is contributing to the progress of society?

IV. Advantages

1. Opportunities for promotion.
    a. Is promotion dependent upon further study and hard work?
    b. What is the next best job?
    c. When is one promoted?
2. Opportunity for physical and mental growth.
3. Tryout opportunities.
4. Social prestige.
5. Does it care for old age and health?

V. Disadvantages

1. Accidents connected with this occupation.
2. Diseases accompanying the occupation.
3. Restriction of growth: educational and social.

VI. Physical and Working Conditions.

1. Inside work.
2. Outside work.
3. Temperature: hot, cold, variable, moist air.

4. Ventilation: fumes, odors, dust.
5. Noise: disturbing, steady, vibrating.
6. Light: natural, artificial, flood, dim, bright.
7. Sanitary conditions: good, poor, variable.
8. Machinery: high speed, automatic, jigs.
9. Tools: hand, light, heavy, standard.
10. Is the work varied or routine?
11. If monotonous are there adequate compensations?
12. Motions: rhythmic, horizontal, perpendicular, circular.
13. Posture: standing, sitting, bending, moving about.
14. Hours: night, day, rest period, overtime, vacations, lay-offs, slack periods, steady work.
15. Does one work close to others?
16. Do other workers cooperate?
17. Is it closely supervised?
18. Is there nerve or eye strain?

VII. Social conditions

1. Unions and associations for: worker, employer.
2. Welfare workers.
3. Labor laws: women, children.
4. Is there opportunity for wholesome family life? (Does it keep the worker away from home, as a traveling salesman?)

VIII. Ethical Standards

1. What are the ethical standards and what are its influences upon those engaged in it?
2. Does it help the individual to lead a good life?
3. Is it conducive to good citizenship?

OUTLINE FOR THE STUDY AND DISCUSSION OF OCCUPATIONS [1]

1. *Importance*

   How does this occupation contribute to the welfare of society?

2. *Historical Background*

   How has this occupation grown and changed?

3. *Tasks*

   (1) What are the main branches, departments or types of work in this occupation?
   (2) What things are actually done by persons in this occupation?

4. *Economic Conditions*

   (1) Opportunity for learning; for advancement; for initiative.
   (2) Earnings. What does a beginner receive? A skilled worker?
   (3) Steadiness of work: Does it fluctuate by season, week or day? Plan for vacation?
   (4) Hours.
   (5) Health and safety.
   (6) Size of this industry or business:
      (a) Number engaged in it in this community.
      (b) Comparison of importance here and in other communities, as measured by number engaged in it, value of product and capital invested.
      (c) Estimate of its future development and demand for workers, local and general.
   (7) Organizations of employers and employees.

5. *Preparation*

   (1) What education or training is necessary or desirable? School? Trade?
   (2) What experience is required? What kinds of work lead up to this occupation?
   (3) To what other occupations might this one lead?

[1] Suggestions for this outline were obtained from those prepared by Dr. John M. Brewer, Director, Bureau of Vocational Guidance, Harvard University, and the National Education Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education. The outline in its present form was prepared by the Cincinnati Vocation Bureau, 1924.

6. *Qualifications*

What special qualities are required for success?

(a) Physical.
(b) Mental.
(c) Moral or character qualities.

7. *Advantages and Disadvantages*

Based on total previous discussion, especially economic conditions.

8. *Relation to the Community*

(1) What other occupations are similar or related to this one?
(2) Does this occupation help the worker to have a good life as a citizen and a man?

F. Occupational Studies

OUTLINES OF OCCUPATIONAL STUDIES

1. *Outline for Use in Planning the Content of a Comprehensive Occupational Study* [1]

Foreword.
Table of Contents.

Part I. NATURE, IMPORTANCE AND HISTORY OF THE VOCATION OR GROUP.

- Definition of the title, description and characteristics of the product or services: specialties and sidelines, clientele.
- Classification by Census, subdivisions, allied occupations, source and preparation of materials.
- History: beginnings, important changes, recent progress, outstanding inventions or discoveries.
- Importance: number engaged in the work, Census data and comparisons, dependence of others upon it.
- Contribution to social welfare: necessity, use, value, social or educational influence.

Part II. OPPORTUNITIES FOR JUNIOR EMPLOYMENT AND INSTRUCTION.

- Survey of workrooms or departments: location, description, pictures, a trip through the typical plant.
- Departmental and occupational organization of the work: grade of jobs, age, sex, rates of pay, in chart or text.
- Junior jobs and qualifications: 14 and 15 years, 16 to 18 years, schooling, laws, abilities.

[1] Approved by Occupational Research Section of the National Vocational Guidance Association and by organizations entering coordination agreement sponsored by the Section.

Demand for skilled and unskilled labor in the field.
Systematic instruction offered in plants: classes, clubs, or apprenticeships, cooperation with school instruction.
Courses of instruction in local schools, public or private.
Lines of promotion and successful careers of local people, biography, personnel studies.

Part III. WORKING CONDITIONS.

Hours of labor, wages and incomes, regularity of work or pay.
Health and safety problems of jobs and workrooms.
Economic and social welfare of employees: sickness, accident, old age, and death benefits; trade and employers' organizations; social and recreational activities.
Future of the occupation, business, trade, or group.
Advantages and disadvantages (summary).

Part IV. JOB ANALYSES.

Skilled jobs described in outline or text as to—

A. Tasks, materials, and equipment.
B. Output quantity, quality, and frequency standards.
C. Knowledge and skill required for success.
D. Qualifications of successful workers.
E. Strain and hazards of the job.

Appendix.

Bibliography.
Chart or description of training opportunities, local or elsewhere.
Content of a good course of training.

Outline for Use in Planning the Content of a Shorter Occupational Study or One for Younger Readers[1]

I. NUMBER OF WORKERS ENGAGED IN OCCUPATION

(Give source, data and area covered by figures used.)

a. Total engaged in occupation.....

b. Total males (18 years or older).....Total females (18 years or older).....

c. Total males (under 18).....Total females (under 18).....

II. NEED FOR WORKERS

(Note increase or decrease in number of workers in relation to population.
Note whether there is an oversupply or undersupply of workers and explain.
Note principal centers where undersupply or oversupply is especially outstanding.)

III. DUTIES

(State specifically tasks performed by workers and what they need to know.)

IV. QUALIFICATIONS

a. Sex.

(Are there opportunities for both sexes?)

b. Age.

(State what age, if any, is required for entrance.
State what age, if any, is required for retirement.
State age qualification preferred by employers.)

[1] Approved by Occupational Research Section of the National Vocational Guidance Association and by organizations entering coordination agreement sponsored by the section.

c. Race or Nationality.

(Are there any limitations *re* employment of special races or nationalities?)

d. Other qualifications.

(Include special physical, mental, social, and moral qualifications. Do not include qualifications that obviously are necessary for success in any type of work.)

V. EDUCATION

a. Necessary.

(Definite amount of education that is absolutely necessary for successful performance of duties.)

b. Desirable.

(Amount of education that is desirable.)

VI. TRAINING

a. Preliminary training.

(What preliminary training in Junior or Senior High School, etc., is desirable and available?)

b. Schools.

(What special schools train for work in this occupation—local or elsewhere.)

c. Training on the job.

(Are there special plans for training on the job—apprenticeship system, classes in the plant, etc.?)

VII. LENGTH OF TIME BEFORE SKILLED

(Include special regulations *re* union or other apprentice rules. Instruction may cover a period of 1 week to 3 months but how long before maximum rate of pay is reached?)

VIII. LINE OF PROMOTION

(What are the next two or three higher jobs? State difficulty or certainty of promotion and on what promotion depends.)

IX. RELATED OCCUPATIONS TO WHICH THIS MAY LEAD

X. EARNINGS

a. Beginning.

(wage or range of wages received by beginner)

b. Most common.

(wage or range of wages received by largest group of workers)

c. Maximum.

(wage or range of wages received by the most highly skilled workers)

N.B. (Per hour, month, or year, according to common method of payment. Reduce to weekly rate—state number of scheduled hours per week, e.g., "Based on 50-hour week.")

XI. HOURS

a. Daily.
b. Weekly.
c. Overtime.

(frequency of)

d. Irregular hours or shifts.

(e.g., telephone operator)

e. Vacation.

(include only if allowed with pay)

XII. REGULARITY OF EMPLOYMENT

(When occupation is regular, omit a, b, c, and state regularity. Give reason for regularity or irregularity.)

a. Normal months
b. Busy months
c. Dull months

(Indicate number of workers employed during these various seasons. Do plants shut down entirely during dull months? What per cent of the force is held on? What per cent added as extra workers during busy months, etc.?)

XIII. HEALTH AND ACCIDENT HAZARDS

(State special health and accident risks connnected with the occupation and the ways these may be guarded against. Refer to any state legislation which may have special bearing.)

XIV. ORGANIZATIONS

a. Employers'
b. Employees'

(State activities, purpose and strength, e.g., does union have employment bureau, benefit funds, if so, what?
Give *exact* title of organization, e.g., International Molders Union, *not* Molders' Union.
State if affiliated with A. F. of L. or independent union.
State any difficulties of entrance or specially large fees and dues.)

XV. SPECIAL EMPLOYMENT AGENCIES

(Give names of agencies which specialize in placing workers—e.g., Joint Vocational Service, Inc., New York City, places social workers and public health nurses.)

XVI. TYPE OF PLACES OF EMPLOYMENT

(Give typical places in which workers in specific occupations may find employment—e.g., electrician may find employment in electrical repair shops, doing wiring with construction companies, with a gas and electric company, in a power house, in the maintenance department of factories using electrical machinery, etc.)

XVII. SUPPLEMENTARY INFORMATION

a. Suggested Readings.

(Mark with * those especially suited to young people.)

b. Persons and firms to whom pupils may be sent for information. (Give names, positions, and addresses.)

N.B. For suggested schedules to use in collecting material for this outline see *Vocational Guidance Magazine,* October, 1927.

Dates of study.....
Investigator .....
City .....

Outline for Use in Making a Report of Methods, Interviews and Criticisms of Occupational Studies [1]

(To be sent with manuscript material when it is sent by representatives to all cooperating cities, committee members and editor of *Vocational Guidance Magazine*.)

Re Study of.....

Prepared by: Name.....

Position.....

City.....Date.....

1. Total number of establishments (in community) employing workers in occupations studied..... Total number of workers.....
2. Number of these establishments visited in preparing study .....
3. Number of employers and managers interviewed.....
4. Number of workers in visited establishments. Total Males ..... Females.....
5. Number of workers interviewed at plant.....at home.....
6. Distribution of visited establishments according to size. [how many small (less than 100 employees)].....; large.....; very large.....
7. Per cent of plants visited according to union and non-union affiliations of employees..... Extent to which local industry is unionized.....
8. Others interviewed; position and organization with which connected.....
9. Other visits made (e.g., schools, placement agencies)..... .....
10. Critics in the occupation studied to whom manuscript was submitted. (Give positions and indicate their approval of study or disapproval of any section or paragraph.) .....

[1] Approved by Occupational Research section of the National Vocational Guidance Association and by organizations entering coordination agreement sponsored by the Section.

11. Suggestions to those in other cities making similar study:

---

12. Dates manuscript will probably be sent to press.....

13. Dates manuscript will probably be available in printed form

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SCHEDULES AND INSTRUCTIONS FOR CONDUCTING AN INVESTIGATION

Schedules and Instructions for Investigating Employers [1]

The accompanying schedules and instructions were prepared for the Occupational Research Section of the National Vocational Guidance Association in 1927. During the preceding year 27 different schedules had been obtained from 18 different organizations engaged in occupational research. These schedules had been analyzed as to size, shape, and content.[2] Two schedules—one for large and one for small cities—were prepared.

FOR THE SMALL CITY

The schedule for the small city is 5″ x 8″ in size and should be printed rather than mimeographed, on light, durable cardboard, light enough to be run into a typewriter, strong enough to stand alone, and tough enough to endure the wear and tear of constant use.

The items on the schedule were the 23 most frequently found on the schedules sent in the year before by the 18 organizations plus 4 others found on from 10 to 12 of the schedules. They have been arranged on the present schedule in the order most convenient for reference by the placement worker.

Instructions have been prepared, four pages in length. It is generally acknowledged that they are necessary even though the schedule be simple, in order to make the findings more uniform and therefore more intelligible to all who may use the cards; in order to improve the quality of investigation; and in order to train new workers. It will be noticed that the instructions contain suggestions about making investigations in general, in addition to detailed information about recording specific items on the schedule.

[1] Prepared by Florence E. Clark.

[2] *Vocational Guidance Magazine,* April, 1926.

Classification:

EMPLOYERS' RECORD CARD[1]

Front

1. Name of firm 2. Nature of product

3. Address 4. Room

5. Employment manager 6. Telephone

7. No. of employees
Total Male (all ages) Female (all ages) Boys (14–16) Girls (14–16)

8. Seasons
Busy months Max. force Slack months Min. force

9.

Name of occupation	No.	Sex	Age	Education	Special training	Experience	Posture	Special qualifications	Wages		Occupation ahead
									Min.	Max.	

Back

10. Apprentices
No. Trade Person in charge

Training period Min. age Min. education

Rates, bonuses, etc. Contract signed

11. Other groups in training (with description)

12. Methods of training other new workers
Special training force Foreman Fellow worker Other

13. Hours

Adults:
Begin End Lunch period Total daily Total Sat. Total weekly

Minors:
Begin End Lunch period Total daily Total Sat. Total weekly

14. Union plant Departments union Open shop

15. Nat. predominant Nat. refused Col. No. Occupations:

16. Especially desirable or undesirable working conditions to be considered in placement:

Date of visit	Name of Interviewer	Person interviewed	Purpose of visit

[1] Cards for Small Cities and Large Cities prepared for the National Vocational Guidance Association, Occupational Research Section, by Florence E. Clark, February, 1927.

Instructions for Using Employers' Record Card Designed for Small City (size 5″ x 8″)

General

Attitude

When making an investigation, the interviewer must realize that he has no legal right to the information requested. He is not in the position of an inspector attached to a factory inspection department, who is backed up by a law which makes it an offense on the part of the employer to refuse information or right of entrance into the establishment. The investigator working out from an educational organization should remember that the information he requests may be legitimately withheld by the employer. It, therefore, rests with the investigator to make the employer willing and anxious to help with the educational problem of the community. By his own enthusiasms, knowledge of his own problems and understanding of those of the employer, he must make him see the reasonableness of the request for specific, accurate, and sometimes confidential information concerning the firm. If the employer cannot be appealed to through his interests as a citizen in the educational work of the community, he may be reached through his mercenary spirit as an employer of labor, who after all comes to the school for a part of his labor supply. By the above comments it is not meant that the investigator pause in the office to give an harangue on why the information should be given. What is meant is that the investigator should so clearly understand his own relation to the situation that he will convey his attitude by the way he opens the door, hands in his card, and asks permission for an interview and a visit through the factory. A skillful investigator at times may have to use no spoken word to justify his visit.

Person to Be Interviewed

Seek out first the office and request a few minutes' interview with the chief executive officer, such as secretary or vice-president. If possible obtain his name before coming. It has been found that best results usually are obtained by *not* telephoning for an interview. Dropping in casually carries the impression that the visit is not very formidable. Again, it is easier for the employer to refuse a person a request over the telephone than it is when he stands smiling and friendly in his presence. Having gained permission to get the information, try to see the man or woman who actually knows the jobs of the establishment. Foremen and superintendents for factories and workshops and office managers for offices usually know the facts

desired. Employment managers in large establishments should have the information also. After general facts have been obtained, ask to see the establishment and workers on the job. Here, again, the skill in interviewing comes in, as the employer or his representative must be kept interested until the specific, detailed information has been obtained.

Note-taking

From experience it has been found advisable *not* to use the schedule in the presence of the employer. He is afraid of it and shuts up like a clam. He has no objections to an informal notebook and note-taking. So to refresh the memory, it is suggested that all items on the schedule be typed on the cover and first few leaves of a small notebook. Before leaving the plant, one may run through the items in the presence of the employer, to see that all facts have been obtained. If the employer is in a hurry, leave some of the points unanswered rather than antagonize and lose his sympathy. If the proper contact has been made and sympathetic relations established, a second and other visits may be made. Statistics are not the primary interest of the visit but human relationships, and repeated contacts of boy and employer, and school and employer.

Gifts

Accept no gifts—unbiased decisions can best be arrived at when one is not under obligations. Having once accepted a favor or gift, it is difficult to take up an unwise handling of a boy or bad working conditions with the employer. If he insists he wants to give something, make the matter impersonal and accept something that can be used as exhibit material for use with the boys and girls.

Power to Observe

First, last and always train the mind to observe quickly, accurately, and courteously. Read books on the factory, such as Price's "The Factory," government bulletins from the Bureau of Labor Statistics, and the Women's and Children's Bureaus. Obtain and read trade catalogues, describing equipment and machines used in factories and offices.

Detailed Instructions for Filling in Card (Front)

Fill out the Card in Ink, Printing the Entries, or Use the Typewriter

Classification. Do not fill in this item. The card when handed in, will be classified and properly filed by someone in the office.

1. *Name of Firm.* Be careful to obtain the exact name of the firm as the cards are filed alphabetically under each classification. A slipshod spelling of the name may cause a card to be lost for some time.

   If only the office is investigated or a single department, the fact may be indicated thus: John Smith & Co.—office; or Peerless Mfg. Co.—pattern dept.

2. *Nature of Product.* Obtain the exact nature of the product or service, as for instance "overstuffed furniture," "wire bed springs," "cleaning rugs," for by this item the classification of the schedule is determined.

3. *Address.* Give the complete address, e.g., 1804 North Ave.

4. *Room.* If the firm occupies but one room, indicate thus: Room 201. If the firm occupies the entire building, indicate: Room —entire bldg.

5. *Employment Manager.* If there is no employment manager, insert here the name of the person who does the hiring. Should there be several persons, give the name of the person who hires most of the junior help. . . .

7. *No. of Employees.* If only one department is investigated, give here the number of employees in it alone. (The fact that only one department is being investigated should have been indicated under 1.) If the firm is small and the owner does part of the actual work of the establishment, count the owner as an employee.

   If possible obtain the exact number of certificated boys and girls from the certificates. Do not attempt to make a payroll or time sheet count of the number of employees, as this taking of the employer's time could not be justified.

8. *Seasons.* It would be desirable to get increase and decrease in number of employees from the time records, but here again we are not justified in taking the employer's time to get the facts in so great detail. Take the figures as given by the person interviewed.

9. *Occupation.* Give the name of the occupation as specifically as possible, using the term usually applied, e.g., pressfolder, patternmaker's apprentice, mimeograph operator.

   Insert in the next column, headed *No.,* the number of such positions existing in the plant at the time of the investigation, taking the statement of the person interviewed, or counting as the trip is made through the workrooms.

   Under *sex,* use M for male and F for female.

Under *age,* give number of years required or desired for entrance to the occupation, e.g., 16, 18, 21.

In the column headed *education,* insert the education required or desired for those hired for the position, e.g., 6th, 8th, H.S.

Under *special training,* insert "yes" or "no" as is the case. If the nature of the training cannot be deducted from the content, make a note of explanation at the bottom of the card.

Experience indicates whether experience is required of the employees hired. Use "yes" when experience is required and "no" when it is not.

Posture. Here it is desired to know whether the worker sits or stands and these words should be written out. If the worker does both, write "both" in the space.

Special qualifications. Make here any comment of the employer, such as "clean cut," "neat," "good eyesight."

Wages. Do not attempt to get payroll wages. Take the employer's word (but make a later check if possible with persons placed there). If piece work, give minimum and maximum earnings, inserting P after the amounts to indicate the fact.

Occupation ahead. In this column put the job into which the employee could be promoted. If there is no job ahead, indicate by "none." If there is a sequence of several jobs, list the jobs in order, beginning with the lowest so that the sequence may be followed, thus:

Occupations	*Occupation ahead*
errand boy	feeder
feeder	pressman
pressman	foreman

Back of Card

10. *Apprentices.* This space is to contain information about regular apprentices or learners in the establishment. After *No.* insert the total number, whether in the first, second, or last year of apprenticeship. After *Trade* insert the name of the trades in which the young persons are apprenticed, thus sheet metal, patternmaker, bookbinder. After *Training period,* insert the number of years of apprenticeship, e.g., 3 yrs., 5 yrs. After *Min. age* write the age at which apprentices will be accepted, as 16 yrs.,

18 yrs. Give the *minimum education* required, as 8th gr. If none is required, indicate "none" and insert after in parenthesis the desired amount, thus: (H.S. 4 yrs.). Give the rates of pay, if agreed upon, as "$10, 1st yr.; $40, 4th yr., bonus $600 at end of 4 yrs. If no wages are agreed upon, state "individual contract." After "*contract signed,* write "yes" or "no" as the case may be.

11. *Other groups in training.* Here indicate the groups where some sort of training is given, e.g., foreman-lecture twice a week.
12. *Methods of training other new workers.* Insert a check after person giving training, except after "other," when insert the title of the person, e.g., "owner." If more than one way is used, check the various persons giving the training.
13. *Hours.* Give the exact beginning and ending hours, as 8 A.M., 5.30 P.M. The total lunch period need only be given as ½ hr. Compute total daily, total Saturday and total weekly hours. If there is a night shift, insert facts as for day force between the lines set aside for Adult and Minor.
14. If entire plant is *union,* write "yes." If only certain depts., write the name of the dept. as composing room after *depts. union.* If *open shop* (even though a few employees may be union) write "yes."
15. Under *nat. predominant* write the nationalities of the majority of the employees, e.g., Swedish, Poles, and Bohemians. After *Nat. refused* indicate nationality not hired, as Poles, Jews. After *Col. No.,* write the number of colored in the establishment. If none, write 0. Insert after *Occupations,* the names of the occupation in which they are used, e.g., porter, packer.
16. *Working conditions.* Here bring out the facts which should be known before sending anyone to the plant, e.g., guarding poor in machine shop; light poor in sewing room; light, up-to-date modern factory, etc. Under *purpose of visit* insert the immediate reason for going to the plant, e.g.,

    follow up of J. Jones, placed 1-23-26.
    general study of office devices.

SCHEDULE FOR THE LARGE CITY

The set of schedules for the large city is much more elaborate. Instead of one card, 5″ by 8″, the set consists of five different schedules of correspondence size.

One of the chief problems that faces the large cities is to keep

the record of material on employers in a growing condition in order that the myriads of employers may be brought into working relations with advisers and the placement officers. Establishments are so large that one cannot hope to investigate more than a few occupations or a department at one time. A visit may add information about working conditions. The training program may be the occasion for a still later visit. Complaints from children about certain occupations in the establishment or violations of factory laws may be registered at different times. All the facts should be gathered in one place, and recorded in some logical order. Just as a case work agency keeps a record of its dealing with a family and the record may grow into a volume or two, so may we look forward to building up our records of establishments so that we may have a fairer, more accurate, and more up-to-date picture of particular business organizations.

A chronological record of the experience of each worker in a vocational guidance bureau with an employer would be difficult to read because bulky and badly organized. In the suggested schedules an attempt has been made to provide a topical basis for recording the facts, obtained from time to time. The FACE SHEET is a summary and index of what follows. TRAINING in the establishment may be recorded on a blue schedule; WORKING CONDITIONS, on pink; facts about the industry or trade in general, on orange; and individual JOB ANALYSES, on yellow sheets, to be added one for each job analyzed.

The face sheet should be of durable cardboard, preferably light enough to be used in a typewriter. The rest of the schedule should be of paper and in a series of colors. All should be printed and not mimeographed.

The schedules for the large city were planned to be of use to other than placement officers. The needs of the adviser counseling in the schools and the needs of the adviser preparing occupational material to be distributed in the school system have also been kept in mind.

Classification:

FOR LARGE CITY

EMPLOYERS' CASE RECORD—FACE SHEET

1. Name of firm 2. Nature of product or service

3. Address 4. Room or floor 5. Date firm estab.

6. Employment manager 7. Telephone

8. No. of employees

	Male over 16	Female over 16	Boys 14–16	Girls 14–16	Total
Office day—full time.....					
Factory day—full time.....					
Night shift.....					
Part-time workers.....					
Home workers.....					
Total.....					

9. Seasons
Busy months Max. force Slack months Min. force

10. Nationality and color
Nat. predominant Nat. refused Colored: Y N No.

11. Union plant Depts. union Open shop

12. Member of employers' association

13.

H, C. P	Occupations	Page	H, C, P	Occupations	Page	H, C, P	Occupations	Page

14. Apprenticeship and other training—see page ...

15. Working conditions—see page ...

16. Employment dept. and policies—see page ...

17. Facts about the industry or trade—see page ...

Date of visit	Name of interviewer	Person interviewed	Purpose of visit

H—Handicapped used in occupation. C—Colored used in occupation. P—Part-time worker used in occupation.

EMPLOYERS' CASE RECORD—TRAINING

Name of firm Address

1. Apprenticeship plan:

Trade	No.	Person in charge	Training period	Min. Age	Min. Educ.	Wage Scale

Discuss other features, such as whether plan is employer's, is joint plan with trade unions, whether contract is signed, bonuses are paid, class work given, etc.:

2. Other groups in training, such as office help, foreman, with description of plan:

3. Methods of training other workers

Special force Foreman Fellow worker Other

4. Educational classes, non-vocational:

Interviewer Person interviewed Date

EMPLOYERS' CASE RECORD—WORKING CONDITIONS

Name of firm Address

1. Type of building
   No. of stories: Material: Brick Brick and stone
   Concrete Frame Date
2. Location of depts. by floors
   B 4th
   1st 5th
   2nd 6th
   3rd Loft
3. Stairs and elevators
   Pass. Frt. No. Stairs: No. Fireproof Wooden Open
   Separate well
4. Fire protection
   Fire escapes: No. Firewall and doors: Y N Exit signs: Y N
   Automatic sprinkler: Y N Fire extinguishers: Y N
5. Heating
   Stove Steam Other Adequate Inadequate
6. Lighting
   Windows: No. of sides Artificial needed: Ceiling: Y N
   Direct Indirect Local: Y N Shaded: Y N
7. Ventilation
   Natural only Artificial: Y N Kind: Location:
   Excessive Heat Lint Fumes Noise
   Cold Dust Odors Humidity
8. Cleaning
   Special force: Y N Excessive dirt (injurious to walking or breathing):
9. Safety
   Belts or machines unguarded: Y N Location:
   Safety education Clear aisles: Y N Safety signs: Y N
10. Sanitation
    Toilets: No. Meet state requirements as to number, screening, etc.: Y N
    Washing facilities: Hot water: Y N Roller towel Individual None. Soap: Y N
    Drinking facilities: Bubbler Common cup Individual None
11. Welfare facilities
    First aid equipment: Y N In charge of
    Hospital: Y N Doctor: Y N Dentist: Y N Nurse or welfare worker: Y N
    Rest or recreation room: Y N Couch: Y N Chairs: Y N Music: Y N
    Literature: Y N
    Lunchroom: Tables Counter Seats
    No. bring lunch Eat in workroom Eat in dressing room
    Dressing room: Lockers Racks Hooks Number Matron: Y N
    Insurance schemes, life, health, pension, profit sharing (describe):
12. Employment
    Centralized No. on staff: Decentralized (foremen, etc.) Hours for hiring
    Workers—how recruited:
    Methods of selection: Test Physical exam.
    Other service of employment office:

Interviewer Person interviewed Date

EMPLOYERS' CASE RECORD—FACTS ABOUT THE INDUSTRY OR TRADE

Name of firm Address

1. General facts about the trade:
2. History of the industry or trade:
3. Its possible future:
4. Sources of raw material:
5. Disposition of finished product:
6. Other general facts:

Interviewer Person interviewed Date

EMPLOYERS' CASE RECORD—JOB ANALYSIS

Name of firm Address

1. Occupation 2. No. of positions
3. No. of positions (busy season) 4. No. of positions (slack season)
5. Other names of the occupation:
6. Depts. in which occupation occurs:
7. Description of duties, tools used, etc.

   Length of time to learn job:
8. Requirements and qualifications:
   a. Sex b. Age
   c. Education
   d. Special training
   e. Experience
   f. Physical qualities (indicate whether handicapped can be employed)
   g. Personal qualities.
9. Working conditions, including hazards and strains:
   a. Hours

Daily	Begin	End	Lunch period	Total daily
Sat.	Begin	End	Lunch period	Total Sat.

   Are short time or part-time workers employed? Total weekly

   Hours of part-time workers:

   b. Wages

Time:	Min.	Max.	Average	Median
Piece:	Min.	Max.	Average	Median

   Bonuses or commissions Vacation with pay Weeks
10. Opportunities for advancement to other positions and to higher wages.
    a. Training that will help in advancement.

Interviewer Person interviewed Date

G. Placement

NEW YORK CITY'S CENTRAL REPORTING PLAN

The following pages give a summary of the action which led to the present plan of central reporting which is being carried on by thirty-five non-profit-making employment agencies in New York City, under the auspices of the Research Bureau of the Welfare Council.

In addition to abstracts from the minutes of committees in which the plans were discussed, there are the actual reporting forms which have been used from November, 1927, to the present time, together with notes of change when new methods were put into effect.

These blanks are sent in duplicate a month in advance, to participating agencies; one blank to be filled and returned to the Research Bureau of the Welfare Council within the time specified on the blank; the other to be retained by the agency submitting the information. All the reports are then analyzed by the Research Bureau and the results of the analysis are mailed to the individual bureaus currently.

After almost three years of central reporting, agencies are still urged to make suggestions for greater clarity in terminology or for the addition of new items which they consider valuable for the plan. The blank which is now in use has had eight months' trial. The blanks which preceded it were sometimes changed after only one month's use, and were generally revised after two months' experiment.

Discussion of Employment Report Blank

Abstracts from minutes of meetings of the Executive Committee and of the Committee on Employment Statistics of the Section on Employment and Vocational Guidance

Committee on Employment Statistics, January 3, 1928.

Action taken:

I. To ask for total number of interviews with persons seeking employment or vocational guidance.

II. To exclude under interviews on the questionnaire—interviews which are merely reports of placements.

III. In place of "Applicants who come in for work" ask for "Registered applicants with whom the bureau dealt this month," and as subdivision A instead of "New applicants" ask for "Newly registered applicants." For B "Former applicants," ask for "Formerly registered applicants."

IV. To have columns for men and women as well as total. This rather than fill out separate blanks for each sex.

V. Omit "Applicants who are referred to jobs."

VI. Under "Positions open," count number of applicants placed during the month on standing orders as the number of positions open on standing orders.

VII. Omit all items which ask for numbers of clients "prior to the current month."

Executive Committee, January 5, 1928.

At the suggestion of the Vocational Service for Juniors, it was decided to ask on the blank for a division in age groups. Also the Executive Committee felt that the explanation of items would be more carefully considered if each explanation followed the items on the report.

Executive Committee, March 22, 1928.

Interviews:

So much difficulty was encountered in the interpreting of this item it was decided to omit it until some better classification could be agreed upon. The worker who summarized the reports felt it was the most unsatisfactory item on the blank and perhaps needed re-defining.

A Committee member raised the question as to what kind of information the Committee wished the blanks to furnish. If the trend of the labor market is wanted, the Committee would want to know the total number of persons who come into employment offices seeking work and not only applicants who are allowed to register for work.

Another Committee member thought it would be of interest to get statements as to how many persons come to various bureaus just for vocational guidance.

It was decided to omit "Interviews" and to add the item

"Other persons (other than registered applicants) who came in for work."

It was pointed out that the report as it now stands will in no way show the frequency of, or time spent by bureau staff in, interviews with social workers, families, employers, etc.

Committee on Employment Statistics, March 22, 1928.

Agreed:

I. To distribute "positions open" by sex but not by age.

II. To ask for no distribution in "visits to employers."

III. To add as a new item "other persons who came in for work," that is, the persons whose applications were not accepted.

IV. To ask agencies who have a special list of applicants who are not now counted as *regularly registered* applicants but who are sometimes placed, to report them in item "Registered applicants."

Executive Committee, May 24, 1928.

The Chairman of the Committee on Employment Statistics reported that at the last meeting of the Committee, the item referring to duration of placements was considered. From the reports from agencies on this item, it was found that practically no agency has been able to report accurately on duration of placement as defined in the report. Therefore the Committee decided to eliminate the item on temporary and permanent placement until some better method could be devised. The Executive Committee felt that it was a mistake to make this elimination, and asked that the report contain an item asking for the following differentiation:

Placements in positions for work by day

Placements in positions other than for work by day

Committee on Employment Statistics, June 25, 1928.

Other persons who came in for work:

At the suggestion of the Committee, the reporting agencies were asked to describe the groups of persons whom they reported for the month of May on their blanks under "Other persons who came in for work," and were also asked whether the persons whom they reported were referred to other bureaus or were persons who were considered unemployable, or

fell into other specified groups. The replies, as summarized, were as follows:

> Sixteen replies were received to the special inquiry made as to persons being reported under Item II. These replies and information gathered in visiting indicate a wide variety in returns. The item seems to be a convenient place for recording all figures that cannot be included under Item I, "Registered applicants with whom the Bureau dealt this month."
>
> Four agencies reported keeping no record of this item and this is true of at least two others. The persons included by other agencies may be grouped as follows:
>
> Interviews including reapplicants
> Applicants for employment who are given advice and suggestions
> Applicants referred elsewhere
> Unemployables
> Applicants not registered because of lack of work
> Applicants interviewed and later registered
>
> One, two, three, or four of these items are reported by different agencies under Item II.
> The suggestion was made that the item should be worded to include those who come for vocational advice only, so that the sum of Items I and II would show the number of individuals dealt with by the bureau.

The Committee felt this item was not sufficiently definite to bring in uniform and interesting facts and decided to discuss it further at the next meeting and in the meantime continue to carry it on the blank.

Placements:

The question was raised whether "Placements in positions for work by the day" was sufficiently defined on the report blank to bring in uniform information and the Committee decided, since the Executive Committee had recommended this item, that the members of the Executive Committee who were in the city be asked to meet with the Committee the following Friday to assist in better defining this item.

Special meeting of the Committee on Employment Statistics with members of the Executive Committee, June 29, 1928.

Action taken:

I. To interpret registered applicants as all persons who are eligible to the service of the bureau.

II. If an agency registers any applicants outside the group regularly eligible for service that those persons be counted as registered applicants.

III. That the item "Other persons who came in for work" be omitted from the reporting blank because, after observing the replies on this item for two months, and analyzing the questionnaires reporting the material listed under this item, it is felt that uniform material has not been obtained and the item elicits answers of little value.

IV. To count as placements only those in which the applicant was entitled to pay.

V. To count as permanent placements those described by the employer as permanent, and as temporary those placements described as temporary.

Executive Committee, February 27, 1929.

The Research Bureau pointed out that a number of items on the report blank needed revision and that the Research Bureau had been reviewing the difficulties of agencies in subscribing to some of the definitions on the blank and in the light of these difficulties and in order to improve the accuracy of the reports, the following suggestions were made with the recommendation that they be incorporated in the March forms:

Suggested revision for items on employment reporting system:

II. Openings for workers, including reopenings.

Openings for workers during the month, on orders solicited and unsolicited, including standing orders. Count an order requesting two workers as two openings. Include openings for workers carried over from the previous month. Include *all* reopenings of the same order. Count the number of applicants placed during the month on standing orders as the number of openings for workers on standing orders.

III. Openings for workers, excluding reopenings.

Openings for workers during the month, on orders as specified under Item II, excluding additional openings of the same order.

V. Placements.

Total number of placements reported during the month either by employer or applicant. Count all placements even though some persons may have been placed more than once. This item is the sum of Items A and B following.

Classify placements on basis of employer's order as of duration for:

A Less than one week
B One week or more.

After actually trying out five relatively elaborate reporting forms, over the period of a year, the final form (following) was adopted March, 1929, and has been used to date:

Please return to *Welfare Council, Research Bureau,* 151 Fifth Avenue
New York City, *before*.....

Report of Employment Bureau

Organization..... Address.....
Informant..... Report for month ending.....

Item	Total	14–16 years of age		17 years of age and over	
		Boys	Girls	Men	Women
I. *Registered applicants with whom the Bureau dealt this month*..... This item is the sum of Items A and B, following.					
A. *Newly registered applicants*..... Persons who come to the Bureau for the first time and whom the Bureau registers.					
B. *Formerly registered applicants*... Applicants who had been registered prior to the current month and with whom the Bureau dealt during the current month. Include formerly registered applicants with whom the Bureau dealt by telephone. Count each person but once.					
		Male		Female	
II. *Openings for workers including reopenings*[1]..... Openings for workers during the month, on orders solicited and unsolicited, including standing orders. Count an order requesting two workers as two openings. Include openings for workers carried over from the previous month. Include *all* reopenings of the same order. (Count the number of applicants placed during the month on standing orders as the number of openings for workers on standing orders.)					

[1] Further definition of reopenings is desirable. If a position is open at the beginning of the month; is filled; and then becomes open again because the applicant did not remain, it is a reopening. However, if the position was open and filled during the previous month, and became open during the current month, it is an opening. An opening carried over from the previous month is an opening rather than a reopening. When an employer makes a subsequent call during the month for an applicant to fill a second position, the call is an opening. When an employer had made one request for an applicant for a position, a subsequent request for additional applicants, because the position has not yet been filled, is neither a new opening nor a reopening and should not be counted.

Please return to *Welfare Council, Research Bureau*, 151 Fifth Avenue

New York City, *before* .....

Report of Employment Bureau (Continued)

Item	Total	Male		Female	
III. *Openings for workers, excluding reopenings* [1] ..... Openings for workers during the month, on orders as specified under item II, excluding additional openings of the same order.					
		14–16 years of age		17 years of age and over	
		Boys	Girls	Men	Women
IV. *Referrals to jobs* ..... Total number of times that all persons served by the Bureau have been referred to jobs during the month.					
V. *Placements* ..... Total number of placements reported during the month, either by employer or applicant. Count all placements even though some persons may have been placed more than once. This item is the sum of items A and B following. Classify placements on the basis of the employer's order as of duration for:					
A. *Less than one week* (casual) [2]					
B. *One week or more* [2]					
VI. *Applicants placed* ..... Number of different persons placed during the month in positions for which they were entitled to pay. Count each person but once.					

Note: *Leave no item blank.* If a number is not reported for an item, use 0 to indicate "none" and — to indicate "not recorded."

Suggestion: Please note here any suggestion for changes. This is a tentative schedule.

[1] See footnote, p. 381.

[2] Item V, Placements, has been made more definite than in preceding blanks. To obtain consistent reports under the item, a definite time element has been introduced.

Name of Firm		Visited by	Date of Visit
Address		Organization	
Business	Whl. Ret. Mfg.	Phone No. of Organization	

State of New York Department of Labor
Cooperating with U. S. Employment Service. U. S. Department of Labor.

CARD USED FOR CENTRAL INDUSTRIAL VISIT FILE (REVERSE SIDE BLANK)

The card is filled by the agency making the visit. It is used more as an index to the agencies having information about particular firms than as a source of the information itself. When details are desired, the files furnish the name of the agencies which have visited, and the agencies furnish specific information which this key card does not contain.

J.P.-2. 7-28-25-10,000 (6-716)

RECORD OF INDUSTRIAL PLANT

NAME	ADDRESS	PHONE / FLOOR	BUSINESS	REFER APPLICANT TO

TYPE OF BUILDING *General Comment*	TYPE OF WORKROOM *General Comment*
Elevator: pass. freight Stairs: stone wood	Light: natural artificial adequate
Sanitation Fire Protection	Ventilation Noise Cleanliness
	Safety Appliances Atmosphere { dust damp fumes heat cold
HOURS A. M. P. M. Lunch Sat. Total weekly	Liability to Accident To Poisoning
Is Work Seasonal? Busy Season Slack Season	Shop: open closed What Union
EMPLOYEES No. Employed: Adults Juniors Predominating Age	Continuation School Handicapped
Minimum Age Predominating Nationality	Part Time Colored
IMPRESSION OF MANAGEMENT	IMPRESSION OF WORKERS

DESCRIPTION OF PROCESSES

KIND OF WORK	Male	Female	Wage: Minimum	Wage: Maximum	Nature of Work: Heavy	Light	Speedy	Bench	Bench Machinery	Floor Machinery	Monotonous	Dirty	Wet	Nervous Strain	Phys. Strain	Condition of Work: Standing	Sitting	Stooping	Moving	Reaching	Lifting	Special Qualifications for Work: Height	Hearing	Sight	Accuracy	Neatness	Cleanliness	Special	Mental Ability Needed: Average	Above Average	Below Average

KIND OF WORK	General Qualifications and Nationality Desired	Opportunities for Advancement

Remarks (Overtime, homework, method of training, etc.)

Visitor Date of Visit Source of Information

This card, Record of Industrial Plant (face) and Description of Processes (reverse), is used by the Junior Placement Bureau of the New York State Department of Labor.

J.P.-4. 7-25-29-10,000 (6-715)

RECORD OF OFFICE

NAME	ADDRESS	PHONE / FLOOR	BUSINESS	REFER APPLICANT TO

TYPE OF BUILDING *General Comment*	OFFICE CONDITIONS *General Comment* Light: natural artificial adequate
Elevator: pass. freight Stairs: stone wood	Ventilation
HOURS A. M. P. M. Lunch Sat. Total weekly	NORMAL OFFICE FORCE Men Women Juniors Total
Predom. Nat. Min. Age	Cont. Sch. Pt. Time Handicapped Colored
IMPRESSION OF EMPLOYER	IMPRESSION OF WORKERS

KIND OF WORK	M	F	WAGES Min.	WAGES Max.	POSSIBILITIES FOR ADVANCEMENT	SPECIAL QUALIFICATIONS DESIRED

This card, Record of Office, and the one on the preceding page, give an outline of the information that the Junior Placement Bureau of the New York State Department of Labor considers necessary for an investigation record. The reverse side of Record of Office has space for remarks on bonus, vacations, overtime, welfare, education.

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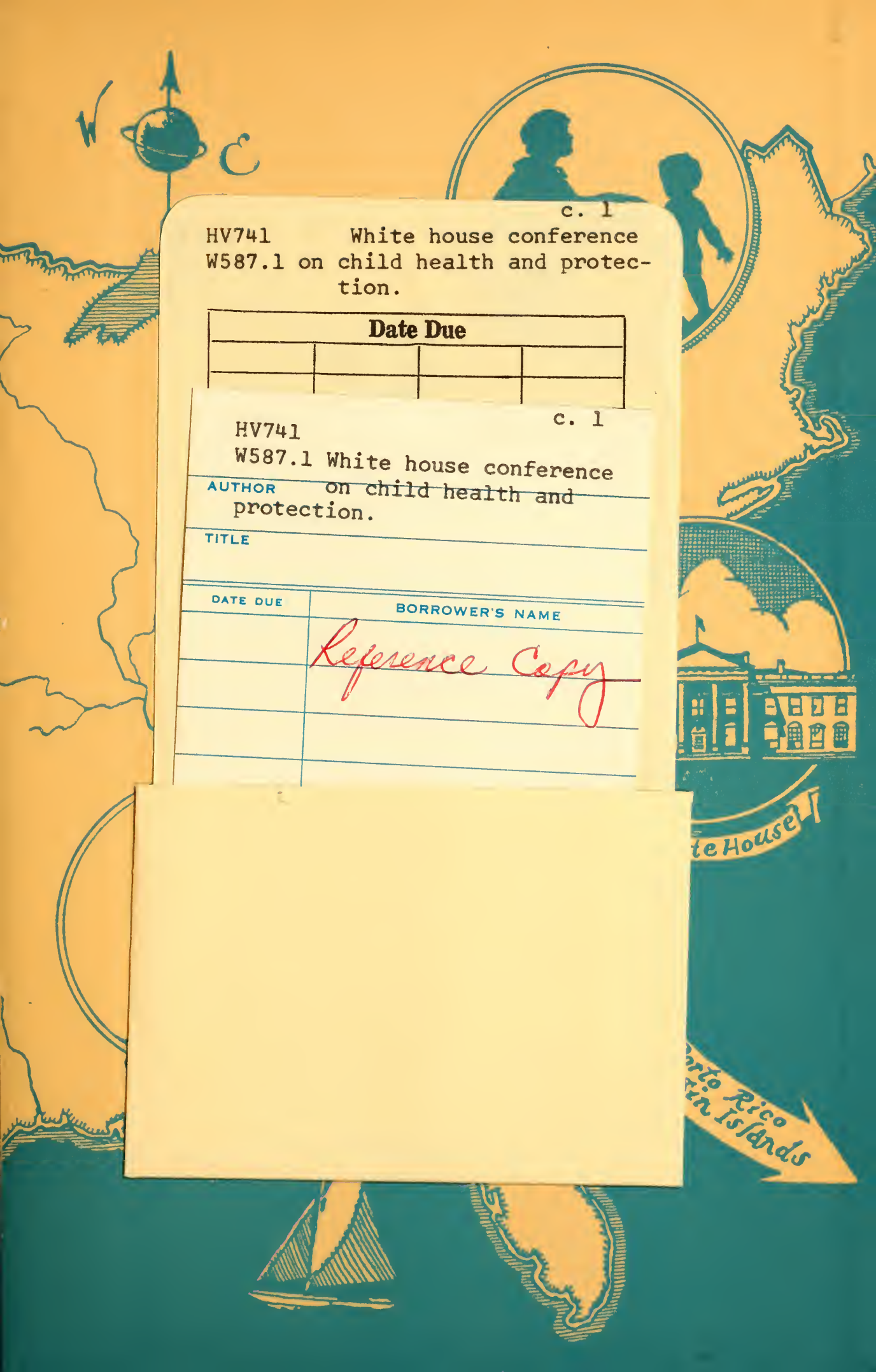

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